

THE CLEARING HOUSE

*A journal for progressive junior and
senior high-school people*

Vol. IX

DECEMBER, 1934

No. 4

Editorials

THE NEW DEAL AGAIN

Educators are naturally much concerned as they view the operation of the New Deal. Along with the rest of mankind they dislike removing glasses that are rose tinted; they are, however, growing increasingly aware of the fact that the time may be at hand when frankness demands the use of the naked eye. The confusion that was present when the New Deal was born has been increased rather than lessened, as it has aged, and the only pattern that appears to be emerging is one forged by the pressures of the strongest groups. This fact cannot bring unlimited gratification to those for whom social values are a matter of central interest.

Before dismissing the case too readily, however, the educator may do well to examine the very conditions of confusion that lead us to despair of hope in this direction. Confusion within the New Deal is but symptomatic of confusion within society at large. We act corporately and talk individually; we develop positive interests in the other fellow, and override him in the pursuit of private gains. As a people, we are what the New Deal shows us to be. Confusion marks both our group and individual actions.

This fact, however, is of basic significance for the educator. It sets forth sharply the major task of the school, the development of clarity in outlook, and the fostering of loyalty to that outlook. And it is right here that the New Deal has played into the hands of the educator. Its adherents, whatever may have been the intent, have succeeded in turn-

ing a national spotlight upon the social motives in economic and political actions. This they have done, particularly at times of general broadcast, in a manner calculated to leave a heightened social consciousness. But, and this by action and mayhap by intent, they have placed an emphasis upon the individualistic motive with equal success. This, too, has been raised to a new vocal and behavior level.

The point is clear. The very end towards which education drives with a discouraging ineffectiveness, the taking of sides in the social field, is unmistakably being achieved with marked rapidity as the New Deal blunders along. The most immediate result, and the one that discourages the educator, is to show that the weight of strength is not yet on the side of human values. What ought not to be overlooked, however, is that loyalty to a social test of institutional action is more a part of the national scene.

The unfortunate feature of this building of opposing camps is that prejudices carried out of the confused past, rather than the intelligence that might bring order and decency into the present and project it into the future, are too much the forces that bring about alignments. But to recognize this is to put before the educator the obligation to further an educative attack upon our social problems.

The ways in which he may do this are none too clear, and his efforts are certain not to be welcomed in quarters where the use of intelligence will pinch those whose power is

great. This but increases the obligation. Moreover, and significantly, his efforts are immediately placed along with those of the common man. It is in the interest of the latter that the force of intelligence must be used if democracy is to live through a period in which a rank individualism, acting corporately, undertakes to capitalize upon a confusion so general that even the dominant group is kept from acting with full effectiveness. Thus, though it happens rarely enough, and under conditions of pressure, gain here and there for the social motive is recorded as arbitration goes forward.

Viewed educatively, therefore, the New Deal may be seen as a major force which is inadvertently loading the educator's dice. He ought not, then, to keep his eyes so focused upon its obvious defects that he fails to make use of the dice. When loyalties are stirred and sides taken, intelligence as well as prejudice has a chance to function. And to those who believe in education and whose allegiance has been given to democracy, the cards must seem stacked in favor of the progressive further use of intelligence. Apart from this faith, it is futile to believe in either.

H. GORDON HULLFISH

NEW STANDARDS FOR THE EMERGING HIGH SCHOOL

What we reward largely controls what we get from children and from teachers. It is the height of futility and perhaps even of insincerity to exhort students and teachers and parents to be enthusiastic regarding health functions, civic attitudes, language arts, appreciation, scientific methods, practical efficiencies, and associational living if we mark and promote pupils and teachers in terms of "mastery" of narrow skills and cloistered informations.

The greatest shortcoming of institutions is their tendency to become institutionalized. Thus, the public high school, created at the behest of mercantile and artisan groups of Boston and of the mechanics of Providence

and of Philadelphia to furnish civic and cultural opportunities for their children, had been transmogrified during the century that followed its origin into a selective, verbalistic, academic, and relatively meaningless institution. Success and even survival therein had come to depend on docility as measured by attending nineteen hundred and twenty sixty-minute periods of "prepared" classwork (or the equivalent thereof) of subject matter set forth to be "learned" with grades of seventy or C.

Our efforts to reconceive the functions and processes and spirit of our schools are largely nullified by their institutional character. Our administrators have too often been selected because of their institutional competency after rigid institutional training, supported frequently by university courses in techniques of institutional administration. Such administrators are almost inevitably institutionalists, and almost as inevitably they conceive success and failure of teachers and pupils to be concerned with institutional coöperation and docility or their opposites. And, since the administrators generally determine the rewards and annoyances to be assigned to teachers and pupils, it is also almost inevitable that schools are concerned with tardiness and absences, obedience, orderliness, promptness, and narrow loyalties.

Nor has the process of progressive institutionalization ended with the school's internal regimen. State educational officers and committees on standards of regional associations and college deans or admission secretaries have similarly been selected because of their institutional records. Hence, even the exceptional school principal who has been more interested in boys and girls and social adjustments than in book lists and assembly seating has been obliged to give undue amounts of time and energy to institutional standards, records and reports, schedules, certifications, and a dozen other managerial jobs.

Indeed, it has seemed almost necessary to

seek a rebirth of secondary schools and controlling bodies, a revolutionary change in the characters of institutions and faculties and administrators and State and regional inspectors and regulators, before school standards could be conceived in terms of educational purposes instead of mere institutional factors. For the past quarter of a century the struggle for intelligent modifications has been carried on, but with little result. Junior high schools, vocational schools, part-time schools, and experimental schools have been launched with shouts of defiance directed towards institutional restrictions and inertias; they have gained their little victories, but each in turn has grown pliant and compromised with the current seemingly insuperable stupidities.

The struggle goes on, however. Indeed, there is much of hope and of solid achievement in current practices and proposals. Especially significant is the fact that the revolt against institutionalism is now taking place at senior-high-school and college levels and in State departments of education and regional associations of colleges and secondary schools.

Not until senior high schools and colleges became almost overwhelmed by the rising tide of students who could not and would not accept the old artificial standards were the radical changes, which had been demanded for so long, undertaken. But at last we are in the midst of a potentially beneficent period of readjustment of institutional standards and stereotypes. Whether or not there will emerge practices of school discipline, standards of achievement and knowledges, qualitative bases for certification of pupils and teachers and schools, and intelligently conceived articulations among schools, all in harmony with the social objectives of education and with the physical, mental, and emotional health of all adolescents, will be largely determined by the de-

gree of vigor and persistence and frankness with which all interested persons cooperate in sympathetic but critical consideration and subsequent approval or disapproval of the modifications proposed or actually instituted by State departments, regional associations, college entrance authorities, experimental schools, and pioneering superintendents and school boards.

The articles included in this number of *THE CLEARING HOUSE* deal with several of the typical problems involved in the current institutional readjustments. Such problems must be solved if we are to proceed down the new road in a spirit of adventure and hope. Our readers will approve in part or in whole the statements or proposals of some of the writers and will disapprove of others. *THE CLEARING HOUSE* will welcome communications in support of or in opposition to the positions taken by the writers.

P. W. L. C.

ERRATA

We wish to correct certain errors which appeared on page 146 of the November number of *THE CLEARING HOUSE*. On that page in the brief notice of *Forthcoming Features of THE CLEARING HOUSE* Edgar G. Johnston was referred to as Dean of the School of Education of the University of Michigan. The title should have appeared as Principal of the University High School of the University of Michigan. In the same notice J. B. Edmonson was referred to as Dean of the School of Education of the University of Washington. This title should have been Dean of the School of Education of the University of Michigan.

We should also like to call attention to the omission of the name of the author of the two poems which appeared on page 154 and page 176 in the same issue. The author of these two poems is Gerald Raftery.

Research in Secondary Education¹

Thomas H. Briggs

EDITOR'S NOTE: *Our readers will be pleased at the appearance in our pages of an article by Professor Briggs of Teachers College. His analysis of the research problem and of the kind of research that is needed in secondary education should stimulate the activities of thoughtful students, teachers, and administrators.*

A. D. W.

THE INTRODUCTION of statistics and of experimentation into education found a hearty reception. In one generation we have developed a new science, with numerous journals and tens of thousands of men and women with training which has given them at least a superficial understanding of the principles and of the common terms of measurement. However, the results, so far as secondary education is concerned, have been meager. Relatively few applications have been made of the findings of hundreds of studies, many of which are truly scientific but many more not wholly respectable when judged by sound criteria. The reasons are numerous.

In the first place, the application of the scientific method to problems of education is still so new that schoolmen have not learned, as members of other professions have long since done, the necessity of making immediate application of all proved findings. When research engineers found how to shield radio tubes, every manufacturer in the country applied the principle—or went out of business. When scientists in medicine found a sure test for and prevention of diphtheria, every practitioner who hoped to maintain his professional status incorporated it into his assets.

Probably schoolmen would have learned more rapidly to apply the findings if they were competent to evaluate what is sound and important among the many published

studies and were accustomed to doing so. Their common sense has made schoolmen skeptical when they read the long list of "scientific studies" issued annually by professional leaders who are more ambitious than discriminating. Many of the problems are trivial or useless, and too many of the procedures are far from convincing. In no other field are so many "tentative conclusions" published, with no subsequent studies, either by the original authors or by other research students, to prove that the tentative findings are, or are not, sound and worthy of affecting practice. No announced conclusion of research in physics, biology, chemistry, or medicine fails to be tested not only in another, but actually in scores of other laboratories. It was only recently announced in Texas that hay fever can be cured by electroplating the affected mucous membranes with a temporary thin coating of zinc. No sooner was the technique published than it was applied in hundreds of hospitals. If it proves effective, it will be adopted as the standard cure. If it is not satisfactory, but shows promise, many research men will attempt to improve the technique until the malady is conquered.

Another obstacle to practical adoption is that studies made under the artificial conditions of the laboratory do not ensure that the same results will be secured in the classroom. Industrial plants have development engineers whose duty is to try out under practical conditions the findings of theorists and to adapt these findings to mass production. Education very much needs development engineers. If promising results from carefully made studies were applied by competent practitioners who are trained in science, the effects of science on educational procedures would be to increase greatly our knowledge of what effective teaching is.

¹ Informally presented to a seminar in October 1934.

The best trained scientists in educational experimentation are often the very persons who make this need imperative. One does not have to read far in our scientific journals to discover methods and terms that are far beyond the comprehension of even well-trained and experienced teachers. The stated results, as well as these methods and terms, need to be translated into the language that the practitioner can understand before it is possible for him to attempt application to practice. It seems that the scientists in education are at present strongly tending to a meticulousness in method which constantly removes them farther from the influence justifying their existence. A few have apparently fallen into the fallacy of thinking that refinements of statistics can compensate for inadequate or unsound original data. Such an assumption still farther removes them from affecting practice.

There is abundant need of research in secondary education. The techniques of measurement for various reasons lent themselves most readily to elementary education, to the field to which there have been copious contributions of scales, counts, and the like. It is but natural that the easier problems should have been attacked first. But as techniques of research in education have improved they have been applied less to the real problems of secondary education than could have been expected—certainly less than is desirable.

The earliest researches in science have, as a rule, been crude and in many cases absurd. Shortly after the founding of the Royal Society of London for Improving Natural Knowledge in 1660, Thomas Shadwell, the poet laureate, ridiculed in his still readable comedy, *The Virtuoso*, its researches by pretending that it advocated the use of air from Devonshire in bottles to cure certain diseases and that its members had mistaken a mouse and spider caught in the tube of a telescope for monsters on the moon. In education this has not always been the case. Some of the earlier researches, like those by Van Denburg, Counts, O'Brien, and

Stout, are still highly respectable pieces of work, for the methods used as well as for the conclusions reached. Later research has tended to triviality of subjects, often remote from practical need, and a repetition of the easier and less time consuming of techniques. One reason, perhaps the chief one, for this regrettable fact is that a large part of the research in secondary education, and probably a similar part in other fields, is conducted by men and women who are struggling to satisfy the requirements of a doctor's degree. The majority of them are not genuinely interested in research and never after assuming the *toga doctoris* undertake or publish anything else of a research nature. The professors of secondary education themselves do very little research. Some are not competent or interested; others become involved in other types of work—no less important, I venture. The need of research in secondary education is far from satisfied.

Who should conduct research? Those who, first, have an insatiable curiosity that can be satisfied only by facts or principles arrived at scientifically by themselves. There are many other men and women who may have a similar curiosity and a similar dissatisfaction with inaccurate knowledge; but they differ from the natural researcher in that they are not themselves impelled by an irresistible urge to find out by their own efforts. If a person does not possess this urge—or, rather, if he is not possessed by it—he is not likely to succeed in the field of research, or long remain in it.

A second necessary characteristic is ingenuity of inventiveness. This probably cannot be learned; the germ is innate. Of course, it can be developed by training and by experience; but it seems that one is born with it or without it. A reader has only to compare the fertility of such a research genius as Edward Lee Thorndike in inventing techniques, apparatus, and devices with what is reported in most published studies to see what I mean. It would be easy to multiply examples.

A third essential characteristic is a sense of impatience with anything less than accuracy and unflagging patience to obtain it. The extrovert, I think, seldom makes a good research man. If you have a yearning to put ideas into practice, to direct others, to make things hum, you may very well question whether it is worth your while to undergo the long regimen necessary to the training for research. You may under direction achieve one study that has respectability, but you are likely never to produce another. Fortunately, as I have said earlier and elsewhere, there is need in the world of education for development engineers, who must have scientific training, and there is need also for a multitude of skilled men and women who with intelligent appreciation of approved programs and processes can put them into effect. But they do not need either the doctorate of philosophy or the training which it should demand.

In research as in clothes there are distinct waves of fashion. Just as we have seen women wearing sleeves that are tight, voluminous, sheer, or conspicuous by their absence, so a reading of research journals will reveal successive waves of counting, measuring, scales, extreme mathematical techniques, and the like. I have dabbled in all of them except the last; the present procedure has got beyond my practical arithmetic and algebra. What the next wave of popularity will be I cannot prophesy. Each series consists of a pioneer who develops the technique (he is the real scientific man of research), a few who improve or refine the technique, countless imitators who apply the pattern in another field, imitators who can be accounted research workers only by a very generous extension of the term, and then a petering out until a new series begins. When was the last scale made? Fortunately, each series leaves an instrument that builds up the aggregate of the tools the research worker has at his command.

As I see the field, there are three major types of research in education. The first is

the field of ascertaining facts. Strictly speaking this procedure is in itself usually not research, but preparation of the materials with which to carry it on. However, sometimes the techniques used and the care with which the investigation is carried on dignify a project so that it may fairly be characterized as research. An extensive study such as that made by Burdge and published in a voluminous report entitled *Our Boys* is an illustration of what is on the border line. The study was eminently worth while; a great mass of facts was carefully collected and tabulated by Hollerith machines so as to give information of various kinds under a large number of important categories. (Incidentally it may be remarked that it is a great pity that so little use has been made of the data by other investigators or by schoolmen in making their programs of education for youth as they are shown to be.) But when judged by reasonable criteria of research, the study has difficulty in qualifying.

Collecting data—after a fashion—is easy; and this fact has made this type particularly attractive to men who lack the essential characteristics of research scientists. The past decade or so will stand out as the heyday of fact collecting, whether the facts sought are worth knowing or not. It would be supererogatory for me to enumerate the so-called studies that have reported such facts as the number of identical twins of parents with Presbyterian affiliations failing in first-year Latin in the accredited high schools of the third congressional district of Arkansas. A certain Q. H. Flaccus ridiculed this sort of thing in *School and Society* for December 13, 1930. This parody, reporting an alleged study of how school executives receive their pay—by vouchers, by check, in cash, or not at all, with the distribution of checks or vouchers by size and color, the means and probable errors being given—may have seemed to some readers absurd and too far from the practice derided to have any pertinence. But hardly had the type grown cold before a national committee published a re-

port that was almost exactly parallel in procedure and in importance, a fact that an editorial writer on one of the New York newspapers was quick to detect and make public.

It must not be assumed that I am depreciating the collection of facts. Far from it. We need, both for research and for making practical programs, many more facts than we possess. I am merely trying to make two points. The first is that much work of this kind has unfortunately been concerned with facts of insignificant importance, or, to make my assertion entirely convincing, with facts that we very much less need to know than many that have been neglected. A fact becomes important when a problem that needs solution demands it. This implies that research should begin with a problem, a hypothesis, or a philosophy that needs to be proved, justified, or extended, as the case may require. Later in this presentation I shall present some illustrations of studies that involve worth-while fact collecting, each one of them being important because the underlying problem, hypothesis, or philosophy, is, in my opinion, important.

The second point that I have tried to make is that the technique of fact collecting is so fully developed and so generally understood that its use does not constitute research. If some new technique is invented, justified, and successfully used for the first time, or if some well-known technique is uniquely applied, the term "research" may perhaps properly be used. The usual study in this field merely involves industry, accuracy, and patience. As a matter of fact, much of the work is performed by wives or by paid assistants who often use the more accurate tabulating machines. The fact that a professor is willing to pay a doctor's degree for facts that he needs to prosecute some study of his own does not make research of counting. Fact collecting, counting, and measuring have their places in scientific work. Some scientific work cannot be done without their aid in gathering necessary materials. But after the appropriate techniques are invented

any plodder with certain very common characteristics can be trained to use them.

A second major type of research is the experimental. Usually in education it requires a problem or a hypothesis, the isolation of an experimental factor, the careful selection and measurement of subjects, one group of which will be trained and the other held as a control, another careful measurement after training, and an interpretation of the results. Sometimes, with one or more other measurements added, the experimental and control groups change places after one period of training and another is used. Every step of the experimental type of research requires superior ability and the characteristics previously mentioned of a research worker. The finding of an experimental problem or the invention of a hypothesis, especially the latter, is beyond the powers of ordinary men, however able they may be in administration, teaching, or other important activities. The analysis of the experimental factor has time and time again proved an insuperable obstacle; and it cannot be questioned that the ability to invent appropriate techniques for the selection of groups, for the training, and for the measurement is rare. Again I express the doubt that respectable and enduring abilities can be developed by training unless there are original native aptitudes and capacities for research.

This type of research is of the highest importance, and it is greatly needed in education. That it is all too frequently neglected is easily explained by the qualities demanded, by the expenses involved, by the time consumed, and by the difficulties of securing the opportunities to experiment with human beings. As said before, the desired qualities are relatively rare. Those who possess them are usually in too much of a hurry to proceed to a doctorate to be persuaded to use the method; and the other mentioned obstacles are usually present also. When the experimental method is used, particularly in the field, there is such pressure to attain re-

sults that it is seldom safeguarded as it should be to make the conclusions trustworthy. Probably if the techniques were better the results would be more convincing and in consequence would have more effect on practice.

All the profession venerates experimentation and many have learned some of its language. Wherever one goes he is sure to hear that "We are experimenting" with this or that; but on inquiry he usually finds that the problem has not been sufficiently simplified, the experimental factor is inextricably interwoven with others, groups are inadequately selected, the training methods are only a part of a confused complex, other influences are not removed, initial measurements are neglected, final measurements are inadequate, and the interpretation of the so-called experiment is made with an incompleteness, lack of thoroughness, and partiality that invalidate all conclusions that may be drawn. Is there any wonder that change in educational practice is based more on the eloquence and personality of the proponent of some novelty than on the results of research? A large subsidy from some philanthropist could well be spent in promoting real research in all fields of education. It is especially needed in secondary education. I am very hospitably inclined to the idea that graduate schools of education should require more training in research and that they should be satisfied in dissertations for the doctorate with reports of smaller experiments thoroughly done on problems that demand the method. As in other university fields—no proved results, no degree.

The third major type of research is the historical. This, too, has been largely neglected, especially in the field of secondary education. In the earlier days such research was more common, largely because the history of education was one of the few fundamental required subjects. Unfortunately those who were leaders in the field presented it in a dry, abstract manner, students were alienated, and the subject attracted few who

by natural interest, previous inclination, and scholarly competence might have been trained to conduct historical research. By some quirk of chance several prominent leaders in the field—notably Brown, Monroe, and Graves—were attracted to other activities, usually administrative; and now hardly any one seems interested and active to write the neglected history of secondary education. The tercentenary in 1935 will doubtless stimulate a number of studies; but where are the competent scholars to make them or to direct them? The history of education has dwindled in importance in the professional curriculum; and as the historians have yielded to the pressure to make their courses "contribute directly to the solution of modern problems" they have become philosophers, sociologists, and several other things, all of them perhaps for the general good. Their courses are "fused" with others of complementary nature; "discussion groups" ride on the crest of a temporary popularity; "panels" permit prepared didactics and the exercise of lively ingenuity in seeming to agree after entertaining display of verbal give and take; and historical scholarship suffers. Probably there is still need in the professional world for the patient and skilled grubbing in the documents of the past that we may know whence we have come and profit from the experiences of those who have gone before. Or is the world so "emergent" that nothing is important but the future—and that planned only on theory without knowledge of the past or an assured competence of vision?

Those who are attracted to historical research in secondary education will find vast unexplored areas, and there are a multitude of unused materials. We are not reduced to the narrow confines that led Hobson to undertake his painstaking, ingenious, and long-continued studies on the life of Shakespeare, or that led Miss Sutton to persist until she accounted for a certain August day in the career of Louis XIV. Their highly respectable methods can be applied to a thousand

fields of secondary education with assurance that no competent historical student has even delved in them before and with equal assurance that they contain material that is needed to complete the picture of the past. What do we know of the development of secondary schools, either in specific localities or in general, from 1827 to the multiplication beginning in the early nineties? Of the failure of the academy to attain Franklin's dream? Of the causes of uniformity in decentralization and freedom? Or of many more important phases in the evolution of what we have today?

The student who is endeavoring to learn any or all of the techniques of research in education is frequently baffled by the difficulty of finding a topic that he may attack. He is theoretically expected to find his topic and to convince his advisers that it is worth while. I think the universities have neglected the very important responsibility of training students to find and to evaluate topics of research. Such training seldom manifests an important place in courses on research. Although relatively few students do come to the university with one or more problems emanating from their experience or else have the rare faculty of finding topics for themselves, the majority flounder, become discouraged, and finally have a topic more or less subtly suggested by their advisers. Following are a few suggestions for finding subjects for research.

1. Read lists of research studies that have been made, being alert for extensions or for parallel studies in other fields. (The reports from Alabama, for example, of the intelligence quotients of high-school graduates, or Trabue's similar studies in North Carolina, at once raise the question as to the careers in college of those at both extremes of the range and also of the comparative achievement in life of the academically bright and dull who do not go on to college.) Reals' study of summer high schools suggests a similar study of evening high schools. Numerous lists of research studies may be found

by consulting the Educational Index under the rubrics *research* and *secondary education*.

2. Find studies that are incomplete (probably the majority in secondary education can be so characterized) and plan to extend them. Many studies can be found that end with a statement that the conclusions are tentative, needing more research for confirmation. A study of failing students in high schools can well be extended to include the near-failures, those who are given or earn a mark just above passing.

3. Find studies of good subjects that have used an inadequate or faulty technique, better ones having been devised since they were made or being possible of invention. Since Buchner's study of students erratic in scoring on a battery of prognosis tests, far better methods of using and interpreting the data have been devised. The original Woodworth and Thorndike experiment on transfer lacked a control group, but so far as I know it has never been repeated with this highly necessary improvement. The Van Denburg study of the careers of a thousand pupils through four years of high school might well be improved and repeated.

4. From discussions and arbitrary statements (you will find no inconsiderable number in university lectures) select what needs to be proved—that is, tested by research. Many more things have been said about exceptionally bright children and about the peculiarities of adolescents than are known to be true. The claims of administrators regarding the achievements of their schools are a peculiarly fertile source of suggestion.

5. Best of all, recall the problems that you have met in your experience or consider those met by others. Many of them are particularly inviting to research. I have several hundred papers of experienced students, mostly high-school principals, each telling of an important problem and of how it was solved. These papers I shall be glad to make available to any one who wishes to locate a topic for research.

In conclusion I list a score or more topics that may be suggestive to some of you who are casting about for subjects on which you may sharpen your teeth. Each one is purposely presented in the large; it will perhaps need to be considerably reduced in size or modified before it furnishes a satisfactory subject for a research leading to proved competency and the crowning degree. No significance is intended by the order in which they are presented.

PROBLEMS FOR RESEARCH

1. What becomes of high-school "drop-outs" and graduates?
2. Social and physical effects of acceleration.
3. The results of programs varying in the number of subjects—This problem is complicated by the fact that variation is sometimes caused by teachers' estimate of pupils' ability to carry a heavier load than normal, sometimes by the fact that previous failure has made it necessary for a pupil to do extra work in order to keep up with his class.
4. The results of outside work and study on achievement in a normal school program—It is well known that many high-school pupils do regular work outside of school for pay and that others carry outside studies such as music, foreign languages, and the like, but the school seldom varies its demands on pupils because of their dual obligation.
5. The effect of personal associations on academic school achievement—It is a matter of common observation that some pupils do better schoolwork than would be expected of them because of association with friends who are strong students and that others do less well than should be expected because of their friendship for boys and girls who are not academically minded.
6. The persistence after graduation of high-school learning—With the discarding of the old idea of transfer and discipline the justification of much learning must be in its persistence. How much of what is learned in high-school classes is retained after a reasonable interval so that it can be used in any of several desirable ways?
7. Programs and achievement of students in college compared with their achievement in high school.
8. Learning outside the school.
9. A constructive plan for the library classification of educational materials—It is well known that neither the Dewey nor the Congressional Library systems adequately provides for the classification of educational material, much of which has developed since these systems were invented. I have discussed the problem at some length in the *Journal of Educational Research*.
10. To what extent have principals tried out what is "proved scientifically" and with what results?
11. To what extent do principals earn their salaries?
12. What do department heads do?
13. Distribution of administrative duties in many schools and in several types of organization.
14. The work of the State high-school inspector.
15. The use of learning in other subjects in conventional curricula—It is quite obvious that political history, for example, should be drawn on in the teaching of history of literature; that mathematics has a contribution to make to physics; that chemistry and home economics are related. To what extent do teachers of one subject know what other subjects have to contribute? To what extent do they draw on them and to what extent is pressure leading them to do so?
16. The effects of midyear graduation—Inasmuch as many colleges do not receive entrants at midyear, it is obvious that this irregular graduation may have some influence on the educational plans of the boys and girls. There are a number of other such implications.
17. The later careers of "creative youth"—Following the work of Hughes Mearns a great many high schools have published the creative writings of boys and girls in both poetry and prose. Some schools have developed the creativeness in other fields. It would certainly be well for us to know the extents to which the creative urge is continued after the youth have left the inspiring teacher.
18. Adapting adolescent education for the dull.
19. Delinquent youth in schools and courts.
20. What becomes of Protestant youth in New York?—It is said that the high schools have very much larger percentage of Jewish boys and girls than the population warrants.
21. Reading on adolescent levels—There are many phases of this problem. The teaching of primary reading is as near a miracle as anything that we have in education and the stamping in of the elementary habits is particularly well done in the succeeding few years, but very little has been done in the teaching of boys and girls how to read on higher levels. As

a matter of fact, there is little analysis so far as I know of what such reading is and of what it requires.

22. Education of the emotions.

23. The causes, degrees, and effects of emotionalized attitudes.

24. The whole extracurricular field is so young that it has many problems ready for research.

25. The effects of extensive reading of easy materials in foreign languages—There is some reason to think that such practice would be superior to the slow reading of a small amount of difficult material.

26. The effects of collateral reading in English, history, science, etc.

27. Is literature ordinarily taught with regard to the principle of unity?—It is generally accepted that every work of art has some central unifying idea and that this idea is of transcendent importance in a piece of literature. Naturally it should receive emphasis and give meaning to a consideration of all details. In all probability it does not do so in common practice.

28. The results of teaching by different methods in various subjects and on the several intellectual maturity levels.

29. How is the ability to systematize acquired knowledge related to different degrees of native intelligence?

30. To what extent does the systematization of knowledge contribute to its retention, extension, and application in use?

31. To what extent do secondary-school pupils retain for varying periods after formal examination what they have learned? A study of this problem may well be made intensively in a single subject, like mathematics or history.

32. What provisions have been made in recent curricula for the integration of individuals with the larger social groups?

33. What provisions have been made in recent curricula for developing an integrated personality?

34. How intellectual interests begin and develop.

35. To what extent a guidance program has been effective and successful.

What Should an American Graduate Know?

I. IN RESPECT TO HEALTH

DAVID M. TROUT

Dean of Men, Hillsdale College

EDITOR'S NOTE: The Michigan Schoolmasters Club has been in existence for a period of nearly seventy years. During the last annual meeting one conference—that of administrative teachers—took as its theme the following question: "What should a young American graduate of the public high school know and be able to do from the standpoint of health, vocational, recreational, and civic-social-moral development?" The topic was discussed by four individuals, each one dealing with one and one only of the aspects mentioned above. The four papers were as follows.

C. O. D.

THE RECONSTRUCTION in education which came after the World War included many new and valuable changes in curriculum content. One of the most significant of these was the increased attention to the health of the pupil. Like every new movement in curriculum making this one has suffered somewhat from the overzealous. Bulletin No. 17 of the National Survey of Secondary Education indicates that health programs of instruction and guidance have not only been introduced into a relatively large percentage of our school systems but that in many of these systems they are required of all pupils. It is this procedure of requiring the pupil to take health and physical-education examination, to pursue courses of study, and to master instructional detail in this field which may, paradoxical as it seems, become a genuine danger to the health of the young graduate. This brings us to the first objective which should guide us in health education.

1. Health initiative should be characteristic of the young American graduate. When health habits and information are forced upon the pupil in an arbitrary manner with-

out adequate group coöperation, and without information which makes it seem reasonable to him, we are apt to develop an individual who thinks of health habits and health programs as necessary evils. This is unfortunate because as soon as the compulsion is removed he is apt to revert to unwholesome practices. The need, therefore, seems to be for the building of a health program motivated by group enthusiasm, practised as an ethical code, and advocated primarily by the pupils themselves. The safety patrols found in many schools are, at their best, excellent illustrations of the type of activity which exemplifies health initiative.

We should aim to establish habits which can be brought into play with the minimum of external stimulation. When a pupil must be forced to go to the dentist and doctor, compelled to wash his teeth and take a bath, to take exercise and to keep his shoulders straight, it is probable that our health education is becoming an unhygienic disservice to him, however rich our instruction may be. Instead, we must aim to produce an individual who anticipates the need for all these things and who performs them without being told by teacher or parent. In other words, our aim should be to develop a repertoire of healthful responses which will be brought into play appropriately without artificial or superfluous stimulation of the individual.

Health initiative, however, without adequate ability to secure the most recent knowledge in this relation would be of little value. This brings us to the second objective.

2. The young American graduate should

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be able to make an adequate analysis of his health status whenever necessary. This objective appears to be the more important when we consider that knowledge in this field is apt to change considerably during the pupil's life, that his own functions and bodily structures will vary with age and changing circumstances, and that he like all other human beings will be inclined to sag in his practices and to revert from the better to the worse unless he is equipped with resources for resetting his standards of health conduct at frequent intervals. His ability to analyze his health status fortifies him against stagnation, critical changes in his life processes, and ignorance of the latest health information.

Such analytical ability requires that during his school course he learn to use and interpret accurately health habit rating scales, mental-health inventories, and the various tests and measures of bodily functions such as hand grip, lung capacity, heart action, etc. The child who is trained during the course of his curriculum to take such inventories of his practices and his organismic condition is equipped to keep alive intellectually and habitually in the reorganization of his health standards as he grows older. It is possible that our increasing death rate during the years when men ought to be socially most competent indicates a failure of our educational system to introduce this inventorying process into the lives of our pupils.

While an individual ought to carry through life a high degree of health initiative and the best of skills in the analysis of his health status, his life would still be incomplete in this respect if he did not have a third type of information and skill.

3. The young American graduate should know how efficiently to reconstruct his health practices whenever analysis and information show them to be inadequate. Here the public school can render great service.

Many of our children, especially adolescents, suffer, for example, from incorrect

posture. They are victims of nagging adults who constantly tell them to straighten up, to carry themselves correctly. Positive education would help them to get at the sources of their difficulties and to achieve correct posture by scientific means. Many of them, as John Dewey long ago pointed out, are suffering not so much from bad posture or weak muscles as from an underestimation of themselves. The Adlerian psychoanalysts would say that they have inferiority complexes. Such persons need guidance in mental analysis and in reconstructive mental hygiene. There are, of course, other sources of poor posture. Among these, weak musculature ranks high, and appropriate exercises are needed to aid in rebuilding parts of the body which are growing incorrectly.

Hypochondria is another mental difficulty which prevents many young people from achieving the health objectives dictated by the educational process. They are afraid of diseases, of nurses, doctors, and of the constituted health authorities of the community. Such persons through fear and shame, reinforced by ignorance, evade scientific health procedures, stay away from doctors, depend upon esoteric methods of healing and patent medicines. Such persons challenge the school to increased endeavor to eradicate these mental abnormalities. The health curriculum of the future should, accordingly, make mental health a basic objective. The student must learn how psychological disorders prevent him from using the available means for abundant living. He ought to know how to rid himself of these disorders and to reorder his living in harmony with the best methods known to our culture.

4. In the fourth place, every graduate of our public schools should be equipped effectively to defend his own hygienic practices and to generate and sustain abiding interest in the public health problems of his community. The young man who goes from high school into college is peculiarly tempted by group pressure to fall in line with the many unhygienic practices which he finds there.

Our schools ought somehow to endow the pupil with a sense of confidence in the rightness of hygiene, and to furnish him with information which will make him not only capable of defending it against attack but will also constitute in him a creative force for health in the community where he lives. Probably many of the difficulties of our society in relation to stimulants and narcotics could be solved by adequate education at this point.

II. IN RESPECT TO RECREATION

JOHN R. BARNES

Principal, Grosse Pointe High School

It is next to impossible to say anything new or different on this problem of what our high-school graduates are to do with their leisure hours in the years after graduation. The subject is so familiar to all of us and my time is so limited that I shall ask your acceptance of the following statements without the necessity of supporting facts or argument.

1. The whole trend of economic development is such that we may confidently assert that more and more people will have an increasing amount of leisure time at their disposal in the years that lie ahead.

2. The high school *does* have a very definite responsibility for preparing its graduates to make intelligent use of the increased leisure which economic changes are thrusting upon them.

3. Our high schools are significant in the social economy of our day only as they are productive of *changes* in boys and girls which are socially desirable and individually beneficial. These changes must be relatively *permanent*, and they must be relatively specifically the result of *schooling* if we are to claim credit for them.

I urge the acceptance of this third statement and its implications as a necessary basis for straight thinking on a subject that is all too often obscured by inexact terminology and faulty reasoning. If we are to make progress in this field we must cease "pointing with pride" to results which are extremely temporary, often totally lacking

Even superficial knowledge of the lethargy and indifference with respect to smallpox vaccination at the present time indicates the need for some institution, school, or church to enlighten and inspire the general populace to pursue higher standards in this respect. The young American graduate, if properly educated, will fulfill this function and many others of similar nature which are necessary for a sound program of public health.

in the dynamic reality which will ensure *per-sistence* and *growth* in the interest, attitude, or activity.

Unless William Brown, who has played in the high-school orchestra for three years, continues to seek pleasure and relaxation in his cello when there is no question of credits, or marks, or second-period orchestra class, we are probably justified in asserting that no permanent change has been wrought in William Brown by his high school in the field of instrumental music.

Unless Mary Allen's interest in collecting and mounting butterflies had a very definite beginning or specific advancement because of high-school biology or the high-school science club rather than because of reading *Freckles* and *A Girl of the Limberlost*, the school deceives only itself when it points with pride to Mary's hobby.

I wish to exclude from my discussion of this topic all those leisure-time activities which are *primarily* concerned with the maintenance of bodily health and vigor. I make this limitation for two reasons. I wish to avoid any possible duplication of the first paper on this program. An even more important reason is my conviction that in most cases we have overemphasized the purely recuperative or play phases of leisure activities to the serious neglect of the *creative*

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phase which is concerned with the growth of the individual through his leisure.

The statements which follow are, therefore, based on an attempt to suggest leisure activities which we may be reasonably sure:

1. Offer a better than average chance of persistence after graduation from high school
2. Offer a better than average chance of being initiated and developed largely through the program of a good high school
3. Offer the best assurance of contributing to the continuous growth and enrichment of personality of our high-school graduates

What should a graduate of the public schools know and be able to do with respect to his leisure?

1. *He should know what opportunities his community affords for creative use of leisure time.* What library facilities are available? What museums and art galleries exist in his community or within traveling distance? What lecture series, adult-education courses, community musical, dramatic, or social-service organizations are available at a cost within his means? The school has a definite responsibility and opportunity in assisting its students in a survey of these community recreational facilities.

2. *He should have made definite progress in the development of a set of relative values by which he may evaluate the innumerable opportunities which offer themselves for the investment of his leisure hours.* Can he select his movies reasonably intelligently? How does he rate the relative merits of the Art Institute or Navin Field for an afternoon in early spring? Is a game of poker his sole resource for a pleasant evening? Might a flower garden with a prize dahlia as the center of interest possibly offer certain appeal as compared to spending most of the afternoon "in the rough" in futile pursuit of a score under a hundred? Might the community choral union which is singing Verdi's *Manzoni Requiem* this year have a stronger appeal than a game of billiards with a brother Elk? Unless high-school graduates are different in this respect than non-high-school

graduates, the school has failed in one of its greatest responsibilities.

3. *He should have definite and dynamic convictions which will result in action with respect to his obligation to give some portion of his leisure time to community service.* His community made possible his own high-school education. What does he propose to do about a *direct* and *specific* repayment of his debt? Will he serve on a board of education without other compensation than frequent criticisms of his intelligence and honesty? Will he take a really active part on the advisory council of the local scout troop or social-service league? Will he give one evening a week to assisting at a downtown settlement house? Will he work in his club for a summer camp for underprivileged children giving his time and ability and enthusiasm rather than his money? Unless high-school graduates have been changed in respect to community service the community investment has failed to yield dividends which justify a continuance of the program.

4. *He should be able to do at least one thing on an avocational basis which is a source of pleasure and relaxation to himself.* My emphasis is on *activity*, *personally initiated*, and carried on with a degree of skill which brings satisfaction to the individual concerned. One man finds release from the humdrum of existence in building boat models, another through singing in the choral union. The first may well be an outgrowth of his high-school shop course; the second of his high-school chorus class. One man writes and acts in one-act plays produced by the local little theater group, another builds scenery and solves lighting problems for the same plays. One man forgets the stock market as he plays a ridiculous medley of old time jig tunes on the flute he learned to play in the Vinegar Center high-school orchestra. Another man raises chickens, another bull pups, another sweet peas, another spends endless hours on a perfect lawn. All are *active*, all are finding *recreation* and *satisfaction* in their hobbies. The

high school which fails to develop hobby interests in its graduates is failing to prepare boys and girls for achieving some of the most genuine satisfactions in life.

5. *He should be able to grow in personality through appreciation in his leisure time of the results of the activity of others.* He cannot play a note, but a symphony orchestra and Beethoven can transport him into a world of infinite joys and satisfactions. Has the high school done its part in preparing its graduates to be intelligent consumers of the product of the world's music masters?

He cannot paint a kitchen chair, let alone a picture, yet he stands entranced before a Rembrandt portrait or an Inness landscape. Has the high-school art department contributed *directly* to this man's source of inner satisfaction and spiritual growth?

He cannot write even doggeral verse, but Browning or Masfield or Wordsworth can fill his leisure hours with ever growing richness. Tolstoi and Dostoevsky are not just "those Russian novelists" to him. Has high-school literature opened these doors for him,

or did his love of literature develop in after years when the boredom of high-school literature had been mercifully forgotten?

He cannot act well enough to even "carry a spear" in the current community theater production, but he can swagger with Cyrano, suffer the agonies of jealousy with Othello, or chuckle at the biting sarcasm of a Bernard Shaw. Can the high school honestly take any credit for the initiation or advancement of this man's love of great drama? Another man reads French literature in the original because of the intellectual satisfaction it gives him to catch those beauties of expression that are lost in a translation. Is this activity an outgrowth of high-school French courses, or a development of his adult years? Everett Dean Martin has said: "Learning which is discontinued when one leaves school has been for the most part wasted effort." Francis Bacon wrote: "The more good things we are interested in the more ardently we live." These two quotations are the best summary of my paper that can be written.

III. IN RESPECT TO CIVIC-SOCIAL-MORAL DEVELOPMENT

EDGAR G. JOHNSTON

Principal, University High School, University of Michigan

The title assigned to me might be paraphrased more simply in some such words as these: "What preparation for getting along with his fellows should the young American have?" To knowledge and abilities I should like to add a third category—attitudes—probably more significant than either of the other two.

WHAT SHOULD THE YOUNG AMERICAN GRADUATE KNOW?

1. *He should know that progress in the sense of human welfare or even the continuance of what we call civilization is not inevitable, but depends upon the intelligence we bring to bear on the solution of problems that face us.* He needs an abiding sense of

the past in its relation to the present. He needs to know that civilizations quite as advanced as ours (when their starting point is considered), quite as vigorous, quite as hopeful have vanished into nothingness not once but many times. He needs to ponder Carl Sandburg's lines:

Now its Uncle Sam sitting on top of the world!
Not so long ago it was John Bull and, earlier yet, Napoleon and the eagles of France told the world where to get off at.

Spain, Rome, Greece, Persia, their blunderbuss guns, their spears, catapults, ships, took their turn at leading the civilizations of the earth—

One by one they were bumped off, moved over, left behind, taken for a ride; they died or they lost the wallop they used to pack, not so good, not so good.

One by one they no longer sat on top of the world—now the Young Stranger is Uncle Sam, is America and the song goes, "The stars and stripes forever," even though "forever" is a long time.

Even though the oldest kings had their singers and clowns calling, "Oh king, you shall live forever."

2. *He needs to know that the progress of science and industry and organization has vastly changed the terms in which our social problems are expressed.* Probably many of you experienced the same shock I did in reading Mark Sullivan's *Turn of the Century* as it took us back into the days of the horse and buggy, the coal-oil lamp, the all-day journey to the county seat ten miles away. We came to realize that our world of today is as different in essential ways of life from that world of 1890 as the nineteenth century from the Middle Ages. We are still thinking in stage-coach formulas although we travel by airplane, get the means of our daily living from the four corners of the world, and with a turn of the thumb listen to Hitler speaking from Berlin.

3. *He needs to know that antiquity alone is not an index of efficiency or desirability.* Many of our political institutions and our social customs were fashioned when America was a little strip of colonies on the Atlantic seaboard. Unquestionably some of the principles our forefathers enunciated have abiding significance, but here the young American needs to exercise discrimination. Those customs of an earlier day were set up to "promote the general welfare." Their continuance should be determined by the same criterion. We have felt no disrespect of the fathers because we do not read by candlelight or because we have utilized modern medical science to add twenty years to the span of human life. In social and economic solutions there is need of the same inventiveness, the same boldness of imagination as that which has remade our material world.

4. *The young American needs to know the realities of political organization.* He

needs to see something of the interplay of forces in his community, in his state, in the nation; to know not only how the Constitution says certain results are to be achieved but how they really are effected. It is a part of this salutary realism to recognize that politics is not inherently bad, that it means merely a way of getting things done and that its value is to be measured in terms of its service to the civic group.

5. Finally, *the young American graduate of the public schools should know that the problems which confront us are essentially social and economic.* Only as we recognize this fact can we find satisfactory solutions for them. The last four years have done a great deal to furnish a postgraduate course in social thinking to the American people.

WHAT SHOULD THE YOUNG GRADUATE BE ABLE TO DO?

1. *First, he should be able to apply a scientific objectivity to the baffling social problems which confront him.* The research worker exploring the new concept of cosmic rays or "heavy water" does not get emotionally upset because he has discovered forces which do not operate in the same way as the hallowed rays of the sun or because some unruly hydrogen atoms have departed from their normal atomic weight. He is interested rather to find out how these forces work, and (if he is not too "pure" a scientist) to what use they may be put. We need the same ability to view facts dispassionately in the social and economic realm.

2. *He should be able to plan in the social field.* The highly specialized mechanisms of a modern power plant cannot be set in motion without a realization of their relation to each other and a harmonization of those relations in terms of the function the power plant is to perform. It is an axiom to say that our modern social and economic world is so closely linked together that no part of it may be made to operate effectively without consideration of other phases of our common life. When we talk about planning

and planned economy we do not mean Fascism and we do not mean Communism, although planning has been one of the most striking characteristics of these two divergent political philosophies. However, a democracy (which I hope the United States may continue to be) cannot afford to lag behind these autocratic governments in the use of intelligence in attacking its problems.

3. *He should be able to coöperate in social solutions.* The young American needs through constant practice to have learned how to get along with his fellows, to have learned the techniques of leadership and followership (we are all at one time leaders and at another followers in some of our varied relations in modern life) and of coöperative decision.

WHAT SHOULD THE ATTITUDES OF THE YOUNG AMERICAN GRADUATE BE?

This third phase of social equipment is more important than either knowledge or abilities. If you want to get to a certain place the direction your automobile takes is more significant than its streamlined body or its horsepower.

1. *He should have a desire to work for the common good.* This attitude, by the way, is not based on an other-worldly altruism and it does not mean unselfishness. It is based more than anything else on a realization that in the second quarter of the twentieth century our world is so closely related that for the overwhelming majority of us our personal welfare is inextricably tied up with the promotion of the general welfare. For too long we have been stressing the idea, perhaps appropriate to the pioneer era, that if each individual pursued his own advantage with singlemindedness of purpose large benefits would inevitably result to the common good. We need to reverse that formula today. As James Truslow Adams has said, "We of America have had our Declaration of Independence; what we need today is a declaration of interdependence."

2. *He should show an attitude of respon-*

sibility. This is of vastly greater importance today than in the circumstances of a hundred years ago. Judgment and responsibility are much more important when handling sticks of dynamite than when wielding flint and steel. Today I cannot go ten miles on any traveled highway without placing my life and future happiness in the hands of a hundred people whom I have never seen before and will probably never see again. Ours is an age of power. A high sense of responsibility is an indispensable accompaniment of power.

3. *He should evidence tolerance for points of view which differ from his own.* The spirit of the panel discussion technique at its best exemplifies this attitude—the desire that all significant ideas may be brought into the open, even those which do not accord with the ones which we ourselves hold.

4. *He should manifest a respect for personality* and an eagerness to protect minorities and dissenters from the despotism of a majority group. Progress usually comes from the ideas of the seers who are scorned or persecuted in their own day. A more intelligent democracy demands protection of these elements which carry the vital spark of improvement. This attitude means tolerance, but it means something more active than that. The idea I have in mind has been most discriminatingly presented in George A. Coe's *Educating for Citizenship* in which he places squarely on each individual his responsibility as a member of the sovereign state to protect each individual from injustice at the hands of that state.

I have said nothing about the conventional moralities—honesty, chastity, accepted conduct in social relationships. I do not believe it is necessary to dwell upon these details. An acceptance of the larger morality which I have indicated here will include them. Certainly in that most intimate phase of personal relationships of men and women—the field of sex—there is no sounder basis for true morality than responsibility, tolerance, and respect for personality.

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My young son is only three and it will be nearly twenty years before he becomes the young American graduate entering the adult world. I am very glad that this is true for I hope that in the intervening years the knowledges, abilities, and attitudes I have listed will have come to be thought of as chief functions of the public schools as were reading, writing, and arithmetic in an earlier day. I hope that through this kind of learn-

ing my son's world may be a much more intelligent, rational, and humane one than that in which we live. If long before the end of that twenty years something of the ideals represented here has not permeated our society, it will make very little difference what my son studies—in fact, there may be no schools left for him to attend, and civilization as we know it may very possibly be a thing of the past.

IV. IN RESPECT TO VOCATIONAL NEEDS

J. B. EDMONSON

Dean of the School of Education, University of Michigan

"What should a young American graduate of the public (elementary and high) schools know and be able to do so far as vocations are concerned?" In answering this question, we must recognize the immediate possibility that large groups of young people will no longer be able to find places in our industrial life before they have attained the age of approximately twenty years. We must also take into account the recent changes in the requirements for workers, especially the decrease in the amount of time required to acquire the specific skills necessary to perform particular tasks. In all probability the situation in training for a vocation will be further modified by the development of programs of adult education, especially those programs having to do with aiding the worker in making an adjustment to a new field of labor. With some of these conditions and trends in mind, I wish to make a few recommendations concerning some of the things that a graduate of a high school should know and be able to do on the vocational side. The first set of recommendations will relate to the question, "What should the graduate know, so far as vocations are concerned?"

1. He should know that it is expected that every good citizen will engage in some worth-while work, that in America work is

honorable, and that rich and poor alike are expected to work.

2. He should know that too many high-school boys and girls are planning to find careers in the professions or in the white-collar occupations.

3. He should have enough familiarity with the more common fields of work to feel a very genuine respect for those who engage in activities other than those of his special interest.

4. He needs to possess a few facts concerning the requirements for admission to some of the commoner fields of work and to know some of the sources of information concerning occupations. He should know some of the questions that a person should raise when he is considering a given occupation.

5. He should know how to find and how to use information concerning vacancies as well as how to make an effective application for a position.

6. He should have completed one or more vocational courses.

7. He needs to know that there are certain qualities of personality, as well as certain attitudes towards life that are very important in all kinds of work, especially those involving relationships with other people. He should understand that coöperativeness,

fair-mindedness, tolerance, persistency, honesty, and industry are important parts of his preparation for a vocation.

8. He should know that successful living is more than the mere making of a livelihood and should have been taught to measure successfulness of life in terms of health, friends, pleasures, home life, and group approval rather than in terms of income.

Much of information recommended in these suggestions could be given through courses in occupations, programs of guidance, and supplementary instruction.

In the preceding list of things that graduates should know, there is no unusual emphasis on the acquisition of skills in some specific field of work. While this might be desirable, I do not believe that we can justify requiring every high-school graduate to attain real proficiency in some vocational field of work and to be prepared to enter employment immediately after graduation. In my opinion the emphasis should be placed on those things that have to do with the acquiring of general habits of skill, the development of right attitudes towards work, and strengthening the desire and capacity to work happily and effectively with others.

The second part of this topic has to do with the question, "What should a graduate be able to do?" This query is very closely related to the first question, but is by no means the same thing. The following proposals are offered as a partial answer.

1. He should be able to mingle with people with a reasonable degree of confidence.

2. He should be able to work happily and coöperatively with other people.

3. He should be able to meet the usual requirements for a competent person in the way of health and physical fitness.

4. He should be able to follow instruc-

tions promptly and faithfully so that he may profit readily by instruction on the job.

5. He should be able to adapt himself readily to new kinds of employment as a result of the high-school training secured in the vocational courses of an exploratory character.

6. He should have a fair command of the major skills emphasized in one or more of the vocational departments of the school; i.e., general shop, household arts, commercial, unless he has definite plans for entrance to college following graduation.

These proposals imply that we must increase the opportunities for training on the job after high-school days and also increase the provision for short vocational courses of a specialized character for young people and adults who find it necessary to adjust to new positions. Of course the proposals will be disappointing to those who believe that every high-school graduate should have the requisite skill for immediate entrance into some kind of employment of a specialized character. They will not be disappointing, however, to those who know the extent to which industry is prepared to furnish training on the job to boys and girls who have developed the right attitude towards work and have acquired habits of industry. The proposals will not be disappointing to those who know the extent to which workers fail because of their inability to work coöperatively with others in the factory, in the shop, in the store, in the office, or in community affairs. The proposals imply that general training rather than specialized training should receive major attention during the secondary-school period, and that there should be emphasis on training for ready adaptation to changing kinds and conditions of employment.

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Standards of Achievement for the Junior High School

Edgar G. Johnston

EDITOR'S NOTE: On July 19, 1934, Edgar G. Johnston, associate professor of secondary education, gave the following lecture as one of a series sponsored by the School of Education of the University of Michigan. The editors of THE CLEARING HOUSE are glad of the opportunity to make it available to a larger group.

A. D. W.

MR. GRADGRIND wanted facts, "nothing but facts. Facts alone are wanted in life. Plant nothing else, and root out everything else. You can only form the minds of reasoning animals upon facts: nothing else will ever be of any service to them. This is the principle upon which I bring up my own children, and this is the principle upon which I bring up these children. Stick to facts, sir!" You will remember the schoolroom scene in which Dickens portrays the practical Mr. Gradgrind inspecting the quality of instruction.

"Give me your definition of a horse."

(Sissy Jupe thrown into the greatest alarm by this demand.)

"Girl number twenty unable to define a horse!" said Mr. Gradgrind, for the general behoof of all the little pitchers. "Girl number twenty possessed of no facts, in reference to one of the commonest of animals! Some boy's definition of a horse. Bitzer, yours."

"Quadruped. Graminivorous. Forty teeth; namely, twenty-four grinders, four eyeteeth, and twelve incisive. Sheds coat in the spring; in marshy countries, sheds hoofs, too. Hoofs hard, but requiring to be shod with iron. Age known by marks in mouth." Thus (and much more) Bitzer.

"Now, girl number twenty," said Mr. Gradgrind, "You know what a horse is."

Frequently, parents, laymen, and even teachers unfamiliar with the purpose of the modern school and the consequent reasons back of its organization of curriculum and methods of instruction ask rather apprehen-

sively what standards the junior high school undertakes to maintain. The criterion by which "standards" are to be judged is usually drawn from their own experience in the common school of an earlier day and either consciously or unconsciously takes much of its color from a point of view towards education not far different from that of Mr. Gradgrind. A good many of us were brought up on the dictum that "knowledge is power."

In all probability the average high-school youngster of today knows many more facts than did his predecessor of a generation ago. It is equally probable, however, that exactly the same facts will not be common knowledge to all of the group and that their factual background may omit specific items of information for which high-school youths of an earlier day had developed an exaggerated respect. The following questions are selected at random from tests given to pupils of the seventh grade in a modern junior high school.

ENGLISH

1. (true-false) The Romans came to England in 55 B.C.
2. A word which was introduced into the English language as a result of the Roman invasion is
3. To find out what *e pluribus unum* means, I should look in the section of my dictionary that explains
4. When I look up a word I can find out the following four things about it: 1. 2. 3. 4.
5. (true-false) Bob Cratchit is the name of the old man in *Saddle to Rags* who outwitted the highwayman.

MATHEMATICS

1. In this space draw an angle of 37° .
2. How many degrees are there in the third angle of a triangle if one angle is 40° and another angle is 65° ?

3. Write as a common fraction reduced to its simplest form $12\frac{1}{2}$ per cent.
4. Mr. Adams found that 18 per cent of his apples were not good enough to sell. Out of 35 bushels he had bushels of good ones.

GENERAL SCIENCE

1. Under what conditions will a siphon operate? Make a diagram of a siphon, and explain its action.
2. What causes an artesian well to flow? Make a diagram to explain.
3. Trace back to the sun the energy which we obtain when we eat a piece of beefsteak.

SOCIAL STUDIES

1. The principal contribution of the Phoenicians was
2. Apollo was the Greek God of
3. Our present calendar of 365 days was made by
4. With the help of your definition blanks, define each of the following words: government, astronomy, temple, pottery, culture, Pharaoh, acropolis, time line, civilization, irrigate.
5. Draw a scale of miles and use that scale to draw a map of Greece, locating the following places on the map: Athens, Marathon, Sparta, Delphi, Mount Olympus, Olympia, the Gulf of Corinth, Thermopylae, Piraeus harbor, and the Acropolis.

FRENCH

1. Write le, la, les, or l' before each of the following words:

— boîte	— plume	— règle
— élève	— encre	— pupitre
— fenêtres	— cahiers	— maison
— carte		
2. Draw a map of France with 4 rivers, 4 cities, and 4 mountain ranges.

FINE ARTS

1. Draw connecting lines between the style of chair in the first column and the set of characteristics in the second column which corresponds:

Jacobean	Shield-shaped back
Hepplewhite	Spindle arms and back connected by rail
Italian Renaissance	Heavy straight back, spiral or twisted legs
Adam Brothers	Slender straight legs—inlay
Windsor	Heavy boxlike straight carved back
Queen Anne	Vertical grooves, oval back—often light in color
Sheraton	
William and Mary	
Chippendale	
Duncan Phyfe	

Pierced back straight or cabriole legs
 Curving forward and backward spread in legs giving extra stability—frequent use of lyre back
 Inverted bell in legs connected by stringer
 Cabriole legs, high round-shouldered back—feet with claw and ball

INDUSTRIAL ARTS

1. Show how you could divide a board into three parts (width) and describe how to do it.
2. Give the composition of common solder, pewter solder, brass, and bronze.
3. The strength of an electromagnet is determined by what factors?

It may be said that all of the items here presented are ones with which some seventh-grade pupils are familiar. It is probable that few well-educated adults could score the entire list correctly. There are some items which you have known at one time but have forgotten because you did not use them; there are probably others you never had occasion to learn. It is far from my purpose to suggest an extension of this list as an adequate measure of junior-high-school achievement. Standards are not so easily determined. I hope, rather, to present a number of considerations which must receive thoughtful attention if any statement of standards is to be realistic.

I. Standards can be determined only in terms of the goals towards which achievement is desired. These goals must include more than "book learning." An ideal based on information alone demands too little, rather than too much, of the school. Habits and skills, information and understanding, attitudes and ideals, all represent outcomes of learning for which the school must accept responsibility. The efficient junior high school will provide thorough but intelligent drill for the attainment of essential skills and will administer objective measures to determine the degree of attainment. In the selection of skills to be taught, it will take into account probable future use and relative im-

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portance. For instance, the junior-high-school pupil of today will not be compelled to wrestle with cube root; learning to read graphs will play an important part in his mathematical training.

Pupils should acquire much information, but facts will be chosen for their significance to the learner and will be used as instruments to understanding rather than as ends in themselves. In the eighth grade of a traditional school, I learned that Popocatepetl and Iztaccihuatl were mountains in Mexico, that Mexico was bounded on the north by Texas, New Mexico, and Arizona, and on the east by the Gulf of Mexico, and that it was a purple spot on the map. I got no appreciation of the Mexicans as a people, nor any understanding of their peculiar problems, their struggles, their achievements, and their national ideals. I learned that Reykjavik is the capital of Iceland. It was never suggested to me that the people of this small island had made early and signal development in orderly democratic government and have at the present time the oldest parliamentary body on the face of the globe. Facts are important, but only as they are assimilated, related to each other, fused with significance, and made a basis for developed understanding. In striking and desirable contrast to the unrelated fact gathering that was too frequently characteristic of history and geography, physiology, and civil government in the grades now comprised in the junior-high-school years is the approach to learning provided in well-planned excursions to points of interest in the local community or neighboring localities. The junior high schools of Ann Arbor have demonstrated an unusually effective program of such educational trips functionally related to the various departments of the school and making distinctive contributions to a first-hand understanding of social institutions.¹

Particularly important (and difficult to

achieve) is the development of desirable attitudes, an objective which should permeate the work of the school. Attitudes are not something which can be assigned and tested for; they can be assured only by setting up the kind of situation in which desirable results are likely to occur. In terms of happy adjustment to his social environment and of effective contribution to the life of his community, no outcomes of learning are more important to the pupil of today than attitudes of self-reliance, of responsibility, of tolerance, and of coöperation. No adequate measure of the success of a school or the growth of an individual can leave out the outcomes of learning which fall within this category.

II. *Standards must be set up in terms of individuals and adapted to individual needs, interests, and abilities.* Pupils are not all alike. Not all of them can or should learn the same things nor can they learn with the same speed. Through the use of standardized tests with nation-wide norms, it is possible for us to determine achievement in specific fields of learning with a considerable degree of objectivity. These norms, however, should not be used as standards. Such a procedure is an injustice both to the superior student who should accomplish far more than the norm for his grade or age, and to the pupil whose abilities do not make the achievement of the norm a reasonable expectation for him. Some children of the seventh grade ought to achieve tenth-grade norms in reading. For others, a fifth-grade level may represent commendable achievement. Every child has a right to succeed. The responsibility of the school is that of keeping the pupil working up to his capacity—the child of exceptional ability doing exceptional work, reading widely, exploring new fields of interest, building up a substantial foundation for later work in school and for adult life; the child of meager academic ability discovering the satisfaction of success in work adapted to his capacity. Obviously, the problem which confronts the

¹ *Helping Children Experience the Realities of the Social Order* (Ann Arbor, Michigan: Ann Arbor Board of Education, 1933), 307 pp.

teacher is a much more complicated one than that of assigning to all pupils the same selected list of tasks and expecting from all of them the same results. To the teacher of vision and humanity, however, its solution should prove vastly more satisfying.

III. *Standards should pertain to symmetrical development of well-rounded personalities, not to the accumulation of unrelated specific abilities.* Growth of the individual is the ultimate measure of achievement in the junior high school. Acceptance of this point of view means a balanced relationship between the various phases of development, not overemphasis on one aspect (e.g., acquisition of information) to the neglect of other important attributes. Furthermore, it carries important implications for the organization of the school—provision of adequate machinery for guidance, avoidance of overdeveloped departmentalism, freedom from emotional strain, sympathetic study of cases showing maladjustment, recognition of every worth-while achievement. For each pupil development should progress in terms

of his powers, abilities, and interests. The school should provide rich and stimulating experiences as a basis for growth, wise guidance among the choices offered the pupil, and accurate estimates of progress made. It should establish a close working partnership with parents since neither home nor school can achieve its purposes without coöperation and understanding on the part of the other. The aim of this partnership, however, should be to promote child development, not merely to enforce scholastic achievement. Furthermore, there should be consistent growth of the pupil in self-reliance and responsibility. He should be led to evaluate his own achievement with increasing accuracy and honesty.

The considerations presented here may be termed a sort of "preface to standards." Such a basis will prove disappointing to some. It lacks the definiteness and ease of administration which characterize a formula of names and dates and figures. Unfortunately—or fortunately—children are not fixed and definite and do not fit readily into predetermined formulas.

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Can the Debate Idea Be Saved?

Arthur L. Bradford

EDITOR'S NOTE: *If it is true, as Mr. Bradford asserts, that in debating "the wages of originality is defeat," then those interested in debating as a school activity will surely be stirred to appropriate action by the following article.*

A. D. W.

IS THE MODERN interscholastic debate an unmixed good? Are we realizing in fact the benefits that high-school debating in theory provides? If we are not, why are we not? Such questions represent the forthright check-up in certain places of debate value, and they express an inarticulate discontent in others with the competitive discussion as it proceeds seasonally, like football, in most secondary schools of the land. They are questions to which we may somewhat heretically but perhaps hopefully address ourselves.

The traditional brief for inter-high-school debate is an impressive recitation of the benefits accruing to the participant in the form of practical skill in self-expression, intellectual maturation, extension of interests to the larger social problems, refinement of personality in general, etc.—all obviously desirable, all quite as obviously related to intelligently ordered speech activity. But this same brief fails to indicate how these values derive from modern debate. It never succeeds, even when it infrequently attempts to dissect the debate influence from all the other innumerable influences which are potentially astir in the social and academic milieus of practically all considerable secondary schools. And when one regards the question with a mind open and hospitable to new knowledge, he is necessarily uncertain as to whether debate confers these benefits upon the participants, or the participants, by reason of already possessing them, confer them upon debate.

The conventional plea for debate is un-

convincing chiefly because its proponents have never taken the trouble to make it convincing. Circumstances have not compelled them to take such pains. In the mind of the average person there still lingers the superstition that something valuable is gained from performing a disagreeable task, that the so-called disciplinary benefits are among the highest that education has to offer. To this same average person, painfully terrified at the thought of a very formal public appearance and awe-stricken at the Spartan fortitude with which a debater accepts such a situation, the debate must, beyond cavil, be a tremendous educational enterprise. When the debate sponsor, then, proceeds to articulate this mute admiration of debate value, when he declares broadly that it is an incomparable discipline to the mind and feelings and expression our average listener is never for an instant impelled to ask why or how. Thus the school debate has continued to exist and be nourished upon popular sanction while its real *raison d'être* goes largely undeclared.

All speech activity of whatever character ought to be educational. If debate cannot be given an educational significance, then it does not merit the time and effort that students and teachers give it. To be of educational utility, it is necessary that it actually affect a desirable change in the individual. It is necessary that it provide a vital experience assisting him to independence of thought and the critical, judicial point of view. But how will it most certainly simulate originality of thought and the capacity to analyze without bias? Perhaps we can be surer in indicating how it will not.

Can the interscholastic debate as currently conducted be regarded as a developer of independence of either analysis or synthesis? Consider the usual order of procedure in a

debate club. The sponsor receives notice from the State headquarters of the question for the year. Along with the question is an allotment of certain minimal material for an understanding of the question: a syllabus of magazine articles, speeches by nationally reputed students of the subject, etc. The questions chosen for the high-school league contests are with few exceptions grotesquely unrelated to the interests and experience of high-school students. They propose on war debts, on unemployment insurance, on the tax question. There is doubtless a virtue in acquainting high-school pupils with such questions, but are there not more vital questions and more immediate ones upon which it is preferable for them to be informed? Are there not ethical, social, and educational questions equally dignified and worth while and yet close enough to the life experience of the pupil to be really interesting and assimilable? Certainly it would appear that there are. Certainly there are subjects the intensive study and discussion of which would loom larger in the educational experience of the student than a six months' long threshing out of tax reform. The high-school senior is emerging from a world simple and hospitable into one infinitely complex and at frequent turns hostile. Yet he must perforce neglect the subjects a study of which would illumine the new realities he must face for themes upon which his convictions, even when honest, can mean little to himself or anybody.

But so it is. And the sagacious sponsor, losing little time reflecting upon the unreality of the proposition, proceeds to plunge himself and his students into the material in heroic search of such meaning as will give a working knowledge of the question. The whole thing gets under way with the greatest possible celerity and economy. The memorizing and cramming and pretending begin. And these embryo Burkes and Haynes profoundly (?) convinced of the truth of a certain position proceed to look up all discoverable arguments and data in support of their

hastily acquired, often assigned, conviction. An admirable training, not for rationality, but for rationalization.

The chief aim of this interscholastic competition is, of course, to win. For the average high-school orator, and, for that matter, his coach, there is small satisfaction in the thought that, win or lose, there might be something gained anyway. The splendid ideals that are extolled for debate actually have little reality in the thinking of the average coach or his "team," and none whatever in the thinking of some school administrators to whom a winning team is tangible evidence of successful schoolwork. Those intangible increments to personality are nothing one can show a school board or the fond patrons. Hence, the emphasis upon the more practical achievement of victory. Hence, also, the subordination by the coach, in whom the instinct of economic self-preservation is at least normally strong, of the more substantial educational considerations to the immediately more relevant thought of winning a judge's verdict.

I have attended many debate tournaments, local, State, and national, in capacities of spectator, "coach," and judge, and I am compelled to report that in not one has an atmosphere of honest inquiry and disinterested concern for truth prevailed. Instead, there is, in degree varying with the uncertainty of the outcome, tension, bitter partisanship, verbal sparring of directors, last-minute cramming of contestants, nervousness, indigestion. . . . All of which, as far as the students are concerned, is very natural. The whole situation is unreal, artificial, and hard to live through.

The contestants have adopted for the time personalities that are not their own; they are contending with synthetic intensity for or against propositions which do not affect their lives and about which they actually do not care. They are *acting*. And acting of the sort demanded of successful tournamenters is physically and mentally very arduous. Of most coaches

it must be declared that they are less concerned that good reason reign supreme than are their charges. One has but to hear the uncivil exchanges between some of these mentors and the aspersions which they frequently cast, in the presence of their students, upon the judges to appreciate fully the character of the farce.

When I say that originality of thought or address has ceased to be an asset and is actually a liability to the student debater, those who really know debate in its contemporary manifestation will not be shocked. What critical observer of these forensic contests has not heard the consolatory remarks of winners and judges to pupils who perhaps without the advantage of a lot of "material" had contrived original if less learned arguments of their own. "A good showing!" "With a little more experience." . . . And it is in truth experience of a sort that such debaters need. They must learn that victory is to the glib, to the memory masters, that the wages of originality is defeat.

In the final of a debate tournament a few years ago the responsibility for the decision rested with a single judge, a man than whom there is none, I think, more capable. With the debate well under way, one contestant, after a smooth beginning, "blew up." Under the tension of the situation he forgot his speech, completely, irretrievably. After a painful hesitation and vain struggle to recall it, he proceeded with an extempore upon a basis of what he had learned about the question. It was not very smooth, not perfectly unified, and not eloquent. But it was his own and the contentions were good. When the judge awarded the contest to the side of this unfortunate debater there was in the breast of the losers, their coach, and many of the audience the makings of a riot. How could he have judged as he did? The fact that this student plunged suddenly into a difficult situation had got out of it by dint of his own intellectual resourcefulness was entirely overlooked. He had forgotten and messed up his speech and deserved to lose.

This judge has not since been invited to officiate.

But the most compelling evidence of the unhappy tendency of interscholastic debate to degenerate into mere declamation of speeches of others is the stack of "catalogues" and prospectuses of debate material now upon my desk. These advertisements come from establishments all over the country. The entrepreneurs are as a rule young ex-debaters who "know the requirements of a winning argument." Such "houses" furnish for a few dollars arguments, pro and con, bibliographies of authorities, and ready-to-say speeches from salutation to conclusion. Rebuttals are provided at no extra cost with the packet of material. There is, of course, a chance that such canned rebuttals, when duly memorized, will not fit; that the redoubtable parliamentarian may, in using them, unthinkingly rebut an argument that his worthy opponent has not advanced. However, the chance of such blunder is generally considered by coaches as worth taking, since most debaters use "standard" material.

I do not wish to be cynical. The debate idea is, I think, intrinsically sound. Debate ought to occupy an important place in the civil processes of any enlightened society, and is indispensable to the health of a democracy. But, thanks to a curious quirk of the pedagogical imagination, not a fraction of the potentially great educational influence of this activity has ever been realized. We ask in vain, however, for an explanation of just how an activity shot through with artificiality and insincerity can benignly affect the intellectual development of the school-boy. As with many another education practice, tradition lays on a heavy hand. And, under the influence of minute organization, local, district, State, and national, the debate movement has jelled in a formalism in which spontaneity and invention are lost and in which independence and originality are more likely to be penalized than rewarded.

An older generation of disputants crossed

verbal swords over some pretty fantastic questions. But a day which resolved "that the Indian has received worse treatment at the hands of the white man than the Negro" and "that there is more satisfaction in anticipation than in realization" actually saw, in my belief, more originality and greater zest than our own.

More original and interesting than contemporary debates, I have no doubt, was that of the students of St. Omer's who, according to Lamb, argued "Whether, supposing that a pig who obtained his death by whipping superadded a pleasure upon the palate of a man more intense than any possible suffering we can conceive in the animal, is man justified in using that method of putting the animal to death?" The essayist says that he forgot the decision, which, I think, is significant. Nowadays the decision is about all that is remembered.

The thing just now of which debate stands in greatest need is a reformulation of the aims, immediate and ultimate, of this activity and an education of debate sponsors and patrons in such aims. There is need of an extension of the philosophy of speech education as found in the more progressive quarters of the educational realm to the activity of debate. The old concept of speech practice as providing an overlay of refinement upon an otherwise intelligent and reasonable individual is no longer adequate. The close correlation that has been established by psychologists between speech and thought carries the instant implication that speech education should be a discipline not merely in the expression of thought but in the actual process of thinking itself. The utilitarian values that derive from such

speech activities as debate are unaffected by this new understanding of intellectual processes. They are as real as ever, and as important. But the teacher of speech must think more fundamentally than simply of developing poise in his students, important as poise undeniably is. He must think more specifically of the mechanics of reasoning and utilize every resource at his command to make speech activities truly educational, working a change in the personality of his students, a change in the direction of greater catholicity of view, disinterested concern for truth, and temperate and civilized advocacy of belief. The debate "coach" must cease to be a "coach" and become a teacher. He must shift the focus of his attention from the superficial matters of declamatory skill to those of intellectual interest, skill in research, and originality in speech development. In doing so he will foster character growth in a fundamental sense. He will not neglect expressional technique but will encourage a manner of oral communication and argument which, while acceptable by objective standards, are original and suited to the thought to be expressed.

In a more interesting and educationally productive era of debate, there will not be one question, dictated by the students know not whom, upon which to argue until they are sick, but there will be many questions suggested by the debaters themselves and growing out of their own enlarging experience with social living. There will be instead of two or four students a large number of students in the debate club, all active, all gaining through participation in a truly democratic activity a valuable training for life in a democracy.

Down the New Road

W. B. McPherson

EDITOR'S NOTE: *Mr. W. B. McPherson, superintendent of schools in Williams, Minnesota, offers in the following article a refreshing reminder of an important aspect of high-school teaching.*

A. D. W.

TODAY, EDUCATION stands at the crossroads. How trite and commonplace that sounds, but how pregnant with truth and meaning it is. The old order is changing and rapidly giving way to the new. The question for education is, "Can school theory and practice be adapted to the New America?" Only the most unintelligent and ostrichlike observers can deny that our country is well on its way to a drastic change in its social, economic, and political structure. The great test of our educational institutions will come when they attempt to fit themselves to this change which today is going on all about us.

Today, America—with the rest of the world—is emerging from two of the most devastating catastrophes of all history: the World War and the Great Economic Upheaval. Every institution is being carefully scrutinized and examined; every institution must justify its existence or it will cease to exist. In the social revolution which is upon us in what direction will education go? What are the new roads open to the school?

Education is, in my opinion, at the dawn of a new system of methodology. The old rote memorization, teacher-question and pupil-answer system of indoctrination of our forefathers, has been found wanting. A quarter of a century ago all educational method was much the same. All teachers to a considerable degree used the same methods, the same questions, and even the same devices. During the past twenty-five years we have wandered through a maze of problems, projects, activities, workbooks, textbooks, no textbooks, units, and syllabi. It is no wonder that often the poor, bewildered classroom

teacher could not see the forest for the trees. Experimental schools have flourished and nonconformity to traditional method has been the pride of teachers everywhere.

The growing importance of professional magazines and summer sessions of colleges of education have operated to disseminate the radical ideas of experimentalists. Too often that which was the spoken dream of an idealist has been accepted by the mob as the voice of a prophet. We have been too eager to adopt the new method solely because it is new and teachers have often attempted to use new tools and procedures whose use they did not clearly understand. The results have been disastrous.

Maybe as we turn down the new road we can return to a middle ground in methodology. Perhaps we will accept experimental methods and results only after they have been thoroughly proved. It would be well to remember that it is wise to "Be not the first by whom the new is tried, nor yet the last to lay the old aside." It is to be hoped that we can lay aside all our ideas of units, problems, activities, and the rest of the conglomeration of "modern" methods and conceive again the ideal school as "Mark Hopkins at one end of a log and a pupil at the other." It will be to the benefit of both pupil and teacher if we can catch a vision of education as the influence of a kindly, trained, mature, teaching personality upon an immature, untrained, youthful pupil.

Today, as education stands at the crossroads, we are hearing the demands of two hitherto inarticulate schools—the small high school and the small liberal-arts college. Education, like business, has been worshipping the big. We have torn down our schools and built bigger. We have consolidated until some children spend half as much time in school buses as they do in classrooms. The

crash of 1929 dragged down the top-heavy industrial structures of Insull, Mitchell, and others. Is it possible that the disaster now facing our schools may result in a renewed appreciation of the efficiency and desirability of the small unit of school administration?

We have thought of the school as a factory for turning out good citizens, each carved and pressed to fit the mould of the seven—or more, or less—essentials, not as an institution dealing with human children through human agencies. We have worshipped system, standard tests, I.Q.'s, A.Q.'s, and M.A.'s and have left undone the humanizing process. Our large schools have developed to such a size that personal pupil-teacher relations and contacts are almost if not entirely impossible. We have talked of adapting education to individual needs and capacities but have then failed to consider the most important individual differences such as home environment, ambition, diet, and health. Pancakes for breakfast may be a more important cause of failure than a low I.Q.

We have treated the teacher as an automat also. She has been measured and analyzed until she does not dare to breathe. Let us turn down a new road which will lead us to consider a schoolroom as a group of human children with human ideals and capabilities—many of which cannot be measured by any known scale—guided towards a fuller and richer appreciation of life by a human teacher.

Today, education must reevaluate itself and set for itself a new and higher aim. American education like all other American institutions became too economically minded during the jazz age. The church built skyscrapers with "half the income going to God and the rest to the stockholders." Education attempted to justify its existence by saying that only the educated could get and hold good jobs, only the intellectually developed could succeed financially. The black October of 1929 swept down upon us and jobs belonged not to the educated but to the

lucky. We told our money-mad country of 1925 that a single day spent in high school would increase a child's future earning power by nine dollars. Today we do not know what nine dollars are. Tomorrow we must emphasize the fact that greater joy in life, greater appreciation of life, and greater satisfaction in living can come only through education. The economic aim must be a secondary one for education. Increased leisure will compel the adoption of a fuller understanding of the world in which we live as the primary aim of education. We must see education not as a means to a better living but as the means to a better life. We must get an idealistic view of the school. Modern education had its origins in the purest idealisms the world has ever seen, those of the Jesuits and of the New England Puritans. Education, charity, religion, love, and patriotism cannot be measured in money or financial gain or loss. As soon as they stoop to self-measurement in terms of economic gain they are lost.

Finally, we must make education more selective. Too much of our educational practice and theory has been based upon the idea that any poor boy can, by reading books by the fireplace, become president. Passage from the grades into high school and from high school into college has been too easy. What schoolman cannot remember high-school graduates who, full of hope and enthusiasm, attempted to do college work and failed? Too often these youths who were embittered and made despondent by their failure should have never been allowed to enter college. Significant indeed is the innovation recently adopted by many cities. At the end of eight years spent in the elementary school "certificates of completion" are issued to those who cannot benefit from high-school work and diplomas to those who are qualified to do creditable high-school work. Similarly, at the end of four years' high-school attendance some are simply certified to have obtained all from the instruction that they are capable of obtaining or interested in secur-

ing; others as prepared to enter college.

Please do not misunderstand me. I am not arguing now against a more human school administration but rather for frankly telling some, as quietly and gently as possible, that their chance for success lies outside of the school rather than within it. Neither am I arguing against giving to all the fuller and more satisfactory appreciation of life which comes only through education. We must recognize the fact that any attempt to make a tone-deaf moron appreciate Beethoven leads only to frustrated bitterness. We should realize that for every person there exists a cultural level beyond which he is mentally, and sometimes physically, incap-

able of advancing. We must, in fairness to the pupil, the taxpayer, and our professional conscience, stop our attempted education at this level. Somewhat the same motive has helped to influence the German Government in its recent decision to drastically reduce the number of students allowed to enter German institutions of higher learning.

Today, America's school, like every other American institution, faces a future full of change and doubt. It must bear part of the responsibility for the catastrophes of 1917 to 1933. America's schoolmen must present to a keenly critical public a new education, humanized, vitalized, and with new and more worthy aims.

Forthcoming Features

The January number of *THE CLEARING HOUSE* will contain several articles treating the problem of coöperation in high-school teaching and administration from several points of view.

Professor John T. Wheeler of the University of Georgia presents a discussion of the place of vocational and cultural objectives in a unified program of public education.

William H. Smith discusses a similar problem under the title "Coöperation—A Myth or a Reality?"

James D. Shaner, principal of the North Union High School in Uniontown, Pennsylv-

ania, describes a very effective scheme for the coöperation of teachers in rating themselves and each other.

Helen Ederle of the Indiana State Teachers College has given us an article entitled "Morale in Educational Administration."

In addition to these articles which deal specifically with different forms of coöperation among teachers, administrators, and pupils we are fortunate in being able to print an article on "Aspects of Italian Education" by Professor P. W. L. Cox, who has recently spent a year in the study of European educational problems while traveling in Europe.

Visual Defects as Factors Influencing Achievement in Reading

L. P. Farris

EDITOR'S NOTE: *Mr. L. P. Farris, principal of the Oakland High School, California, makes in the following article a contribution that should be of distinct value to many teachers of high-school children whose vision is defective and who are in need of intelligent training.*

A. D. W.

THE PURPOSE of this study was to determine whether or not visual defects influence the achievement in reading of school children of the seventh grade in the Oakland public schools. In particular, answers have been sought to the following questions: (1) Do different types of eye defects when studied separately affect achievement in reading? (2) Do eye defects when considered collectively influence achievement in reading? (3) Are defective eyes when optically corrected more or less proficient than defective eyes not provided with lenses as evidenced through achievement in reading? (4) Are defective eyes when optically corrected generally more or less proficient than normal eyes as evidenced through achievement in reading?

The procedure in the collection of data involved the giving of intelligence tests, the administration of tests for visual efficiency, and the giving of achievement tests in reading at the beginning and end of the study. The Kuhlman-Anderson Intelligence Test and the Stanford Achievement Test in Reading were given late in October 1930 to approximately nineteen hundred H-6 grade pupils. From these tests, summaries of which were on file at the Department of Research, Oakland public schools, the chronological age, intelligence quotients, and reading scores were obtained for use later in the study. In January and February 1931, under the immediate direction of the Division of

Optometry, University of California, visual efficiency tests including tests for the efficiency of the functions of accommodation and convergence were given to 1,685 pupils of the L-7 grade in the 16 public junior high schools of Oakland.

For many years school procedures have been based upon the assumption that vision is free from impediments if, and when, in perceiving distant objects, the acuity equals or approximates the value generally accepted as normal. The adoption of a standard on the assumption that the rating in visual acuity is a measure of the ease with which the eyes perform their visual functions is to accept a standard which places major emphasis upon retinal activity and to a great extent ignores the muscular functions of the eye which are known to lie at the basis of the numerous discomforts which frequently affect the eyes in vision. Accommodation of the eyes and the convergence of their visual axes are functions essential to the acts of vision and require in most phases of their activity definite contractions of muscle groups. The visual acts of reading are impossible without the coördination of these muscularly controlled functions, and the conditions of comfort which attend the reading process definitely depend upon the degree of perfection with which they act. For this reason, in this study, tests were given and data obtained indicating the efficiency of the functions of accommodation and convergence in addition to those tests which primarily disclose the nature of the focusing of the eyes.

The study is delimited to a consideration of visual efficiency as it affects achievement in reading for a period of one year by the pupils in the seventh grade in the Oakland

public schools. (To be exact, 14 months, October 1930 to December 1931.) The procedure was further delimited and refined by selecting pupils for the control group whose chronological age and mental ability were approximately equivalent to those of the defective group.

The method was that of comparing statistically the achievement in reading of seventh-grade pupils, equal in ability and chronological age, but different in visual acuity. The study was conducted under reasonably well-controlled conditions; this statement is borne out by the fact that the difference in average chronological age between the normal and defective groups never exceeds six months, usually one or two months, and the difference in average intelligence quotients is more than two in but one instance; moreover the average chronological age for the entire 384 pupils of the control group was identical to that of the 384 in the defective group; also, there was only 0.2 of one unit difference in average I.Q.'s of the groups. Furthermore, any inequalities which might be expected from the teacher factor were presumably ironed out since there were 95 different teachers teaching the 768 pupils, 46 while the pupils were in the L-7 grade and 49 different teachers in the H-7 grade. For instance, there was an average of less than three pupils per teacher for each type of eye defect involved in the study.

The major findings of this study are:

Forty-four per cent or 739 of the 1,685 pupils in this study who were given the visual tests were found to have eye defects of varying degrees. For purposes of comparison the White House Conference Reports on Child Health and Protection estimate that approximately 19 per cent of the school population have eye defects which can be remedied so that the children so affected may be brought within the normal group for educational purposes; the Oakdale Survey shows that 63 per cent were affected with some degree of refractive error; Berkowitz reports that estimates approximate 42 per

cent of school children as having eye defects; Hilleboe's study gives 12 per cent as serious enough to be classed as health defects.

Both hyperopia and strabismus are associated with less than normal progress in reading; while myopia and myopic astigmatism were both found to be associated with more than normal progress. The hypothesis that greater strain on the nervous system is required to adjust hyperopic eyes to the conditions which must be satisfied in reading seems confirmed by the finding of this study that pupils with normal eyes have 97 chances in 100 to make greater gains in reading than do pupils affected with varying degrees of hyperopia (critical ratio +2.67. 78 cases studied). Also, the less generally accepted hypothesis that myopic eyes adjust themselves to reading with less exertion of the muscles of accommodation and less expenditure of nerve energy than do emmetropic eyes was rendered more tenable by this study. It was found that for the 136 pupils affected with myopia and myopic astigmatism there are 96 chances in 100 that the true difference in favor of the defectives is greater than zero (critical ratio -2.57).

Pupils whose visual perception is monocular make progress in reading superior to those not having correct coördination of the two eyes.

Types of eye defects other than the myopic, hyperopic, and the strabismic types have little effect upon progress in reading. In other words, the data of this study do not bear out the hypothesis that children with defects in visual acuity, regardless of type, are always handicapped with respect to the learning of reading. The fact that achievement in reading is often affected by muscular eye functions is believed to account for the progress in reading achievement frequently found among those pupils of this study with a low visual acuity rating, and argues in favor of the adoption of a more comprehensive standard than the visual acuity rating in appraising the efficiency of the visual functions.

When all types of eye defects were con-

sidered collectively, the defectives made slightly greater gains than the normals (critical ratio -1.10). It is possible, however, that extreme cases among the one hundred thirty-six who were affected with myopia and myopic astigmatism are largely accountable for the results.

Correction lenses, in cases involving types of eyes defects found to be associated with poor reading (both hyperopia and strabismus), are aids to achievement. For example, hyperopes wearing correction lenses made an average individual gain in reading score of 7.0 while an equal number of hyperopes not wearing lenses made an average of individual gains of only 5.5; for strabismus, 11.2 for those with lenses against 7.3 for those without lenses. Those groups of pupils affected with myopia, myopic astigmatism, monocular visual perception, and ocular muscle imbalance, despite their lack of lenses, made a greater average of individual gains in reading score than did those defectives having the same refractive errors but wearing lenses. The myopes, for example, who were wearing lenses made an average individual gain in reading score of 7.3 while those not wearing lenses made an average gain of 9.0; for myopic astigmatism, 9.1 for those with lenses against 9.6 for those without lenses. Therefore, since the myopic groups without lenses made progress superior to equivalent groups having the same errors and wearing lenses, the findings indirectly confirm one of the major conclusions of this investigation; namely, that the generally accepted standard of eye structure (emmetropia) does not necessarily imply superiority of efficiency in reading. In other words, the same treatment that causes eyes to function more nearly as emmetropic eyes, such as the placing of lenses on pupils affected with myopia, was not found to significantly improve their reading efficiency.

Certain important educational implications may be drawn from this study:

The superficial eye tests (with the Snellen Charts alone) which are at present being

given in many of our public schools are inadequate and should be replaced by more thorough and more complete visual tests.

The establishment and maintenance of eye clinics as a part of the health program in the public schools would enable many pupils to take better advantage of the educational program. In these clinics the aim should be to determine conditions which indicate unfavorable functioning of the eyes in so far as they pertain to schoolwork, and to institute measures to remove such impediments.

There is a need for closer coordination among school counselors, school nurses, and school doctors. School counselors should be required to secure specific knowledge regarding the character of a student's visual conditions since such information is as much a working tool for better educational and vocational guidance as is a knowledge of his I.Q., chronological age, reading age, and such other factors as are at present used by school counselors in their guidance programs.

Classroom methods and procedures in teaching reading should be modified to meet the special needs of those pupils who have eye defects. Hyperopes might well be seated in the rear of the classroom, whereas myopes, if they must be in the same classroom, should be in the seats quite near the blackboard. The teacher should make certain that script writing on the front blackboard is large enough to be easily read by pupils in the back rows. The findings further suggest to those engaged in the administration of our schools the need of providing more suitable reading materials for those whose visual acuity is low and for those having defective eye structure even though their acuity of vision in reading may be equal or superior to those having emmetropic eyes. Books in large type, typewriters with large type, heavy lead pencils, maps without detail, and other instructional material that may be used without causing eye fatigue should be provided as a part of a school system's remedial program.

Course of Study Revision as a Teaching Procedure in the Small High School

Harold Benjamin

EDITOR'S NOTE: Revision of the course of study carried on with the coöperation of pupils and teachers as they carry on their daily activities has a strong appeal as a method of improving the work of the high school. In the following article, Mr. Harold Benjamin, of the University of Minnesota, offers us a convincing description of the operation of such a plan. Many of our teachers will be stirred to interest.

A. D. W.

IN MORE EXPANSIVE and expensive times, many of the larger school systems could attack the problem of curriculum construction in an extensive way. A curriculum director could be employed to set up an elaborate organization and produce elaborate if not always valuable results.

Even during the era of expanding budgets, however, the smaller school systems were commonly denied this opportunity and were forced to accept the curricular conclusions of their larger contemporaries. On the secondary level, furthermore, the small system had to meet college entrance requirements and the rules imposed by State departments of education.

At present the possibility of spending money for curriculum research has been reduced to nothing in many schools. The need for curriculum revision is still with us, however. If anything, it is stronger than ever before by reason of the fact that the fabric of social need upon which a sound curriculum depends is now undergoing a period of kaleidoscopic change.

Faced with these conditions, what can the administrator of a small high school do to improve the curriculum? Let us assume, first of all, that whatever he does must conform to the following practical limitations:

1. The program of curriculum modifica-

tion must be carried out without increasing expenditures.

2. The program of revision must retain the subject-matter patterns approved by State universities and State departments of education.

3. The program must not interfere with teaching. In most cases staffs have been so reduced that it is impossible to spare time from instructional activities for detached service on curriculum committees.

4. The program must be administratively flexible. Preferably it should be one that can be tried out in two or three classes or subjects at first, before committing the whole school to the scheme.

In a certain sense, these four statements represent negative aspects of the situation. They indicate what the program *cannot* do.

On the positive side, there are also certain requirements which should be met in any program of curriculum revision. Three of the most important of these are:

1. The curriculum should be adapted to social needs, and for that reason the community—all communities, from the local community to the world-wide community of humanity itself—must be kept in contact with the program.

2. Pupils should be interested in the program as early as possible as a means of keeping the revised curriculum adjusted to pupil abilities and needs.

3. The program should lend itself to improvement of teaching. A curriculum revision that does not have this result is of doubtful worth.

With these limitations and requirements in mind, the following scheme is suggested for classroom modification of the high-school course of study.

The unit for this plan of course-of-study revision is the class section in any particular subject. The various phases in the process of course revision are also in large degree steps in teaching the subject during the period of revision.

The first phase is that of *orientation*. It is designed to familiarize the student with the general appearance of the subject. During the orientation phase, the teacher does not attempt so much to acquaint the pupils with any formal portion of the subject as to show them what the subject is like, what type of problems it attacks, what general kind of tools it employs, and what it looks like when it is met in ordinary out-of-school life.

Thus, in a course in ninth-grade algebra, the orientation step introduces the pupil to examples of algebraic symbols, problems, and concepts not only in the algebra textbook but also in other textbooks and in periodicals.

Although the course begins with the orientation phase, the process of orientation must continue throughout the whole program of revision. With every new phase of the course, the pupil's concept of the subject's relation to life will be extended and modified. With every new application of the subject discovered in later steps, his orientation will be continued. Orientation is the first phase only in the sense that it must be started at the very beginning of the course.

The second phase is *study of the community*. In this phase the teacher leads the pupils in a search for activities in which concepts and techniques of the subject are employed. Newspapers, magazines, and books are examined in an attempt to find uses of the subject. Business, industry, government, recreation, and home life are studied with the aim of discovering places in which the language, methods, and tools of the subject are employed. Pupils in the algebra class look for instances of algebraic language and algebraic methods of presentation. They collect and analyze examples of mathematical computation occurring in the

community life in an endeavor to discover everyday uses of the subject. Members of the general-science class compile lists of those community activities which demand scientific information and skills of the kind dealt with in their course. Members of the American history class collect autobiographical statements from the "oldest residents" and make a study of the local newspaper files in an effort to discover the materials for a history of the community.

While the pupils are collecting and compiling the materials made available by their community study, they are also following the usual outline for their subject, supplemented and amplified by the material gathered in the community study.

The third phase is that of *improvement of practice*. Here the pupils pass from the stage of merely searching for instances in which the methods and tools of the subject are employed to the stage of searching for instances in which such methods and devices are not now used but could be used to advantage. When the class in algebra has reached the section on graphical representation, for example, the pupils may decide that in their agricultural community this technique should be used in charting the milk production of individual members of the local dairy herds. The class in modern history may decide that a wider knowledge of the history of currency inflation would improve community thinking on current monetary problems.

In connection with this phase, the course of study will be further modified as the pupils and teachers find places where the community practice can be improved by the introduction of new concepts and techniques.

The fourth phase, *recording tendencies*, is one which must be a part of the program from the very beginning. In this phase, the pupils and the teacher cooperate in keeping a class log in which are recorded and summarized all deviations from the original course of study. At the end of the year or semester, this class log will be summarized in a

series of statements designed to tell clearly and in some detail (1) where the course is headed, (2) what changes in community practice are suggested by the modifications already made, and (3) in what ways the community would be different if these changes were generally carried out.

The fifth step, *evaluating tendencies*, is one in which the summary of modifications is presented to three different groups: (1) other teachers of the particular subject, (2) teachers of other subjects, (3) members of the community who are not teachers. These groups are asked to examine the summary and answer two main questions concerning it:

1. Do these summarized tendencies correspond to real changes in community practice? In other words, does the community outside of school display the same tendencies?

2. Are these summarized tendencies socially desirable? Would they help to make a better social order if carried out more completely?

The sixth phase is that of actual *course reconstruction*. In the light of the answers obtained in evaluating tendencies, the teacher modifies his course outline, introducing or emphasizing topics which relate to approved tendencies, and eliminating or relegating to minor rôles those topics which are not so approved.

One complete cycle of the program of modification is thus completed, and the process may now be repeated with a new group of pupils.

Certain weak points of this scheme are clearly recognizable. Among them must be listed the following:

1. The program starts with the conventional pattern of secondary-school subjects and is therefore necessarily limited in scope. To secure fundamental curriculum revision by such a process will be extremely difficult

though not impossible. The dice are loaded in favor of subject X when a study of community activities is undertaken on the definite basis of subject X.

2. The effectiveness of the crucial evaluation step depends on the three groups of critics. The measure of their competence is a measure of the program's worth. To secure opinions from average teachers or average citizens is futile. The curriculum must be more than a reflection of today's mediocrity if it is to be the instrument of a better tomorrow. To secure admittedly superior judges of the social desirability of curricular materials is a very hard task. Various students have made valuable suggestions for attacking this problem, but the central difficulty still remains. To get frontier thinkers or class-A citizens, one must pick them out of the herd of near-frontier thinkers and apparently class-A citizens.

This particular scheme of curriculum modification also has certain advantages:

1. The program can be operated within the limitations assumed at the beginning of this article:

- a) It does not call for increased expenditures.
- b) It works within the confines of the present conventional high-school subjects.
- c) It is carried on as a part of the teaching process.
- d) It is administratively flexible.

2. More important than the mechanical advantages listed above, however, are the following positive values of the program:

- a) It puts the conventional high-school subject in contact with community life and community needs.
- b) It interests the pupil in the improvement of community activities.
- c) It furnishes the teacher a definite means of systematizing and vitalizing his instruction.

Diagnostic Testing and Remedial Teaching in the Junior-Senior High School

Calvin H. Ramsay

EDITOR'S NOTE: Calvin Ramsay is in the University of Missouri High School. His report of an effort to carry out an effective scheme for diagnostic and remedial work in a situation where facilities are limited should be of use to many teachers who are in similar situations. It is perhaps desirable that similar efforts should be made in many schools.

A. D. W.

DIAGNOSTIC TESTING and remedial teaching, like standardized testing in general, has been most extensively practised in the elementary school. However, administrators and teachers have long recognized that many pupils entering the junior and senior high schools are decidedly in need of help in the fundamentals. Especially are they lacking in reading ability, as required in the high school, in mastery of the fundamental skills in mathematics, and in effective study habits.

With the foregoing needs in mind, the author, working in the University of Missouri Junior-Senior High School, attempted to ascertain to what extent teachers, working in the small junior-senior high school where the facilities are very limited and no credit is offered for the course, may undertake diagnostic testing and remedial teaching. Furthermore, he wished to ascertain what gains in how to study, in the fundamentals of reading, and in the fundamental skills in arithmetic pupils with significant difficulties could make in a limited time as a result, in part, of diagnostic testing and remedial teaching.

The investigation was limited in that sufficient supplementary instructional tests were not available. Also, only five weeks of the eight weeks of the summer term of 1933 were available for instructional purposes

after the pupils were chosen. To overcome in part the handicap of limited time, instruction was confined to a few selected pupils. Since the ability to read, the mastering of fundamentals in arithmetic, and a knowledge of how to study were deemed essential to success in school, they were chosen as fields for the investigation.

Since the number of pupils to be offered remedial instruction was from necessity limited, the following technique was used to select them. All pupils regularly enrolled in the Junior-Senior High School were given Monroe's Standardized Silent Reading Test, Test III, Form 1. This test was chosen because it measures both reading rate and comprehension, the two phases of reading which were to be stressed in the instruction. Nine pupils who were lowest in both rate and comprehension were selected for the experiment and seven completed the work.

In arithmetic the Breslich-Reavis Diagnostic Tests in the Fundamental Operations of Arithmetic and Problem Solving, Form B, were administered to the regularly enrolled pupils. This test was used since it measures in a diagnostic way the fundamental arithmetic concepts essential to success in mathematics in the junior-senior high school. Six of the pupils who made the lowest total score were selected for the experiment and all of them completed the work.

In addition to the information above with regard to the pupils selected, the high-school files contain the Terman Group Test of Mental Ability scores of these pupils. That more might be known about the home life, social life, school life, study habits, and progress of each pupil through school the director of remedial work collected a large

amount of supplementary information which will not be presented here. However, these facts proved to be very beneficial and they, together with detailed notes on the remedial teaching of the children in the experimental

tion, drill, and repeated testing to form the correct habits of response and of study.

That the efforts of these university students were not entirely wasted is shown by the following tabulations. Table I shows the

TABLE I

BEGINNING AND END READING TEST SCORES OF PUPILS IN DIAGNOSTIC TESTING AND REMEDIAL TEACHING CLASS IN UNIVERSITY HIGH SCHOOL, SUMMER 1933

Pupil	Age	Grade	I.Q.	Monroe's Standardized Silent Reading Test Scores, Test III Form I						Sangren-Woody Reading Test, Form A Total Scores*			
				Rate			Comprehension			Begin.	End	Per Cent of Gain	
				Begin.	End	Per Cent of Gain	Begin.	End	Per Cent of Gain				
A	15-6	10	96	77	68	-12	23	28	22	79	84	6	
B	16-11	12	97	77	86	12	17	29	71	74	100	35	
C	17-10	12	91	77	125	62	18	43	139	Rate Beg. 19 End 33 G% 74		Comprehension† Beg. 85 End 111 %G 31	
D	12-8	8	117	77	125	62	17	35	106	92	100	9	
E	13-1	7	96	38	86	126	8	23	188	65	79	22	
F	12-6	8	127	77	86	12	17	23	35	107	125	17	
G	13-10	8	113	55	109	98	13	36	177	103	114	11	

* These tests were used as instructional and supplementary.

† Iowa Silent Reading Test Scores, Forms A and B, given to Pupil C only.

group, are in the files of the director.

Directed remedial instruction was given in the main by students in Dr. W. R. Carter's university class in Diagnostic Testing and Remedial Teaching. All of these students were experienced teachers and, in general, were teachers from the elementary grades. On the basis of the foregoing information with regard to the pupils, these teachers, under supervision, sought out by testing the handicaps of these junior-senior high-school pupils and through individualized instruction attempted to remedy these handicaps. However, the first task of the instructor was to convince the pupil, and often the parent as well, that the class was not a class of subnormals. With this major obstacle removed the instructors, in so far as possible, found by testing what desired habits were lacking and what undesirable habits had been formed. Then they sought through instruc-

pretest, the end-test, and the supplementary tests in reading. The general gain in both rate and comprehension is significant. In only one case is the rate at the end of the investigation less than at the beginning and in no instance is the comprehension less. The fact that the increase in rate ranges upward to as much as 126 per cent is significant in view of the fact that comprehension did not decrease. A similar condition is observed in comprehension and it is to be noted that in general those pupils making the greatest gain in rate also made the greatest gain in comprehension. Of further interest is the fact that the greatest gains were made by pupils in the junior-high-school group. While in general this may be expected, the significance lies in the fact that with proper training these pupils will succeed better and derive much more from their instruction in the high school. By this we do not mean that

TABLE II

BEGINNING AND END ARITHMETIC TEST SCORES OF PUPILS IN DIAGNOSTIC TESTING AND REMEDIAL TEACHING CLASS IN UNIVERSITY HIGH SCHOOL, SUMMER 1933

Breslich-Reavis Diagnostic Test Items

Pupil	Age	Grade	I.Q.	Addition	Subtraction	Multiplication	Division	Addition and subtraction of fractions	Multiplication and division of fractions	Placing decimal point in multiplication	Placing decimal point in division	Arithmetical problems without numbers	Arithmetical problems with numbers	Total score	Per cent of gain
H	20	11	78B* E†	0 2	7 5	4 2	0 0	2 2	6 7	3 8	4 7	1 4	6 7	33 44	33
I	12-3	8	120B* E†	3 7	3 6	2 7	1 6	3 8	5 9	0 10	3 8	3 10	11 13	34 84	147
J	18-4	11	80B* E†	2 3	4 5	3 3	1 1	0 4	2 5	4 11	0 11	1 1	8 9	25 53	112
K	13-3	9	123B* E†	4 4	4 5	3 4	1 5	0 4	7 10	7 9	0 4	2 7	6 11	34 63	85
L	16-4	12	110B* E†	2 4	5 5	2 5	2 1	1 5	0 6	10 11	0 4	4 9	9 10	35 60	71
M	15-4	10	102B* E†	5 3	2 4	1 2	0 1	0 4	0 6	0 11	0 0	1 4	6 6	15 41	173

* Beginning score

† End Score

pupils in the senior high school cannot economically be given such instruction. Pupil C is a case which illustrates the contrary.

Additional evidence of the results of diagnostic testing and remedial teaching is presented in Table II which shows the results of instruction to improve the fundamental skills in mathematics. A result similar to that of reading is noted here, the total scores showing extensive improvements. A detailed study of the data shows that several of these pupils still need intensive instruction in fundamentals. It is surprising to note that pupils can attain the rank of junior and senior in our high schools and lack so many of the basic skills in mathematics which they are expected to acquire in the elementary school.

The results of this remedial teaching may be made evident in other than tabular form. During the period of instruction, the pupils, classroom teachers, and in some instances the parents reported a very noticeable improvement in the regular classwork of sev-

eral of these pupils. For example, Pupil L was taking a regular high-school course in mathematics which used extensively the fundamental arithmetic concepts. He was having considerable difficulty because of faulty study habits and a lack of the fundamental arithmetic skills. However, after a thorough drill on arithmetic concepts and on how to study, both the pupil and his teacher reported a decided improvement.

The results of this investigation show in general:

1. That with limited facilities teachers need not hesitate to undertake diagnostic testing and remedial teaching in the small junior-senior high school

2. That deficient pupils in the junior-senior high school can make large gains in ability to study, in the mastery of the fundamentals of reading, and in the acquiring of the fundamental concepts of arithmetic

3. That remedial instruction, as evaluated by teacher judgment, carries over to regular classroom instruction

Report of an Experiment with Failing Students¹

Joseph Samler

EDITOR'S NOTE: *The editors feel that it is a distinct privilege to present in the following article a preliminary report of the experiment in guidance that is being conducted at the Thomas Jefferson High School under the direction of Joseph Samler who is in charge of the guidance department of that school. It is generally hoped that this and other similar experiments will lead to more effective ways of dealing with students who hitherto have in too many cases merely failed.*

A. D. W.

WHAT makes students fail? The guidance department, seeking at least a partial answer to this question, determined to work experimentally with, and study intensively, a selected group of failing students. Such a study, it was decided, would embrace not only work of an instructional nature, but would include also carefully planned individual interviews with each member of the group. To validate its results as far as possible, it was further determined to set up a control group, identical with the experiment group, against which changes, if occurring, could be evaluated. Finally, it was hoped that with the data at hand, and in so far as the facts would warrant, it would be possible to estimate whether or not close study of such failing students would pay for itself in terms of a reduction in the cost of failure, both from a monetary as well as from a student personality point of view.

¹ The writer wishes to express his deep appreciation to Dr. Elias Lieberman, principal of the Thomas Jefferson High School, whose far-sighted administrative policy and practical idealism first made this experiment possible; to Dr. Julius Yourman of New York University from whose real inspiration and continued guidance this venture received its impetus; to Mr. Charles Emil, of the Guidance Department of the Thomas Jefferson High School for his invaluable psychological work.

To this end the guidance department, at the end of the first marking period, drew from the term sheets of the five entering classes, 1A, 1-2B, 3D, 3E, 3F, the names and subjects failed of all students who had failed one or more of their major subjects. There were listed then in alphabetical order the names of 101 students. Through arbitrary choice, taking alternate names, there were organized two groups which were adjusted so as to make them as similar as possible, in number of students, range of intelligence quotients achieved, and range of number of subjects failed.

One of these groups was arbitrarily chosen as the one which would be subject to the experimental study; the other to serve as a control, against which the efficiency of the work with the experimental group would be checked.

The 51 students in the experimental group aggregated a total of 85 failures in eleven major subjects. On page 236 appears a detailed listing of the number of failures in each subject.

Work was started immediately after receiving official sanction of the outlined experiment. It was arranged that the group would meet for one full period daily; this period, since students in the entering classes attend the afternoon session, and since it was thought desirable that students' programs be not interfered with, to be the second of the school day. Through the coöperation of the head of the service patrol, the girls' cafeteria was made available for purposes of the experiment. Through the further coöperation of the dean's office, club passes were made available to the members of the group, making possible their entrance into the building for the second period.

Subject Failed	EXPERIMENT GROUP	
	Number Failing in Each Subject	Total Failing in Each Subject
Latin 1	2	
Latin 2	1	
Latin 3	3	
		6
Algebra 1	10	
Algebra 2	3	
		13
Geometry 1	7	
		7
Biology 1	9	
Biology 2	2	
Advanced Biology 1	3	
		14
English 2	2	
English 3	3	
		5
French 1	9	
French 2	1	
French 3	5	
		15
German 1	4	
German 2	3	
German 3	1	
		8
Spanish 1	4	
		4
Typing 1	3	
Typing 3	1	
Typing R15	1	
		5
Stenography 1	1	
Stenography 3	2	
		3
Bookkeeping 1	4	
		4
Civics	1	
		1

TAWARIS

Because it was felt that the student's attitude towards the group would indubitably influence his work in it, brief interviews were arranged in which the members of the experiment were motivated by a sufficient explanation of the work to be embarked upon. In these short interviews, which took place immediately before the first meeting of the group, a committee of five members was chosen which discussed with the counselor suggestions for a club name, and decided

upon *Tawaris*, incorporated from the motto "Through Work Reach Success." This was subsequently presented to the group and ratified. The desirable mind-set of the group is perhaps epitomized in this club attitude, which, as was later shown, removed the stigma and the attitudes which students invariably associate with extra-help groups, and which gave to them a feeling of participation in one of the prized, extracurricular activities.

THE STUDY GROUPS IN THE CLUB

It was felt that what was needed with these failing students was not so much tutoring and additional instruction, as analysis and diagnosis of (1) the knowledge and skill of the individual student in each subject, (2) the study habits and homework techniques of each student, and (3) the motivation incident to the student's success, or lack of it, in each subject.

To this end the club was broken up into the following subject groups: Latin, mathematics, biology, English, French, German, Spanish, typing, stenography, bookkeeping.

Leadership for most of these groups was provided by the department chairmen who coöperated wherever possible by assigning a pupil teacher to the experiment. Pupil teachers in the following subjects were made available for work of the club: German, English, Spanish, mathematics, biology, typing and stenography, bookkeeping. As has been indicated, the work of the pupil teachers was not so much to tutor and instruct as it was to analyze and diagnose. As an aid in analysis, all members of the group were administered a "Home Learning Questionnaire" which attempted to break up into their component parts the study and homework habits of the group. These were presented to the pupil teachers and were reported a considerable aid in helping the pupil teacher become acquainted with the individual members of his group.

The club met regularly every day for ten weeks. The achievement of the group as

measured in terms of subjects passed at the end of the term that had previously been failed are discussed in detail at a further point in the report.

PSYCHOLOGICAL TESTS ADMINISTERED

The group was administered two standard psychological tests and one interest blank. The psychological tests administered were: (1) Otis Group Intelligences Test, Form A; (2) Thorndike McCall Reading Scale, Number 9. The interest blank administered was one constructed for the Thomas Jefferson High School by the counselor.

THE PERSONAL INTERVIEW

Without going into extensive record keeping and the taking of voluminous case histories, it was felt that for the personal interview it was necessary that certain records be available. There was, therefore, kept in the guidance office a file for the group, which included a folder for each student. In this was placed the intelligence test and the reading scale administered to the student, his elementary-school record, and the following additional records:

1. The interest blank
2. Teacher's rating sheet (one from each teacher of a major subject)
3. First interview form

The interest blank gave to the counselor a number of indications as to the direction of the students' interests, both in school, from a curricular and extracurricular point of view, and outside of school, in so far as play interests and vocational and avocational tendencies were concerned. The teacher's rating sheet, distributed to all major-subject teachers of the students in the group, presented a multiple point of view as to the student's disability. The interview blank consisted of a list of key words and phrases through which the counselor hoped to formulate the student's particular maladjustment.

The aim of the personal interview was twofold. First it was necessary as a technique for eliminating one of the factors that

would influence negatively the work of the study groups. That is, if the reason for a student's failure in his subject was of a personality nature, he would not be helped by the work of the group alone, as the study group was not designed to deal with personality problems. Second, the interview was designed to analyze the individual as to his interests, capabilities, limitations, and to think out with the student the advisability of his continuing in the particular course, or school, or line of vocational preparations upon which he was embarked.

Chiefly, however, the personal interview was designed as a further technique for the recognition of the specific problems causing school failure. There was recognized the existence of an interplay of factors affecting the personality of the child both in school and out and consequently affecting his work in the school. In the cross section of failing students in the experiment group, the personal interview uncovered the fact that only 19 of the 51 students studied had made adjustments to the school situation that could be considered at all adequate. Thirteen students presented problems in motivation towards interest in school subjects, the lack of which was serious enough to cause school failure. Twelve students were seriously maladjusted in that their abilities and interests were definitely not along the lines of the course upon which they had embarked. Occasional others represented definite personality problems ranging from an inability to make friends to an incapacity to get along with their teachers. It was found that the problems of high I.Q. students who were not required to work up to their full capacity and consequently lost interest were as serious as those presented by students of low academic intelligence who were embarked upon work which for them was impossible of achievement.

In all cases, recognition of the problem was the first step towards an attempt at adjustment. In many cases when the problem was of such a nature as to demand their

coöperation, an invitation was extended to the parents of the particular student to consult with the counselor. The process of adjustment, necessarily gradual, is at the time of this writing in progress with many of these students.

RESULTS IN TERMS OF SUBJECTS PASSED

The end result of the experiment was, of course, the successful adjustment of the student to his schoolwork. In quantitative terms, the 51 members of the experiment group who had failed a total of 85 subjects at the first third failed a total of 58 subjects at the end of the term. The table following shows in detail the number of students failing in the first third, compared with the number failing at the end of the term.

Subject	End of First Third	End of Term
Algebra	13	11
Biology	14	6
Bookkeeping	4	2
Chemistry	0	1
Civics	1	1
English	5	5
French	15	8
Geometry	7	4
German	8	7
Hebrew	0	1
Latin	6	4
Spanish	4	4
Stenography	3	2
Typing	5	2
	85	58

It has been emphasized above that the work of the experiment group would be checked against the scholastic achievement of the control group. Of 83 subjects failed by the members of the control group seventy were again failed at the end of the term.

Following is a comparative table showing the achievement in the experiment and control groups in terms of decrease of subjects failed at the end of the term.

The rate of improvement (rate of decrease of failures) in the experiment group is 31.7 per cent as against a rate of im-

Subject	Experiment Group		Control Group	
	End of First Third	End of Term	End of First Third	End of Term
Algebra	13	11	8	6
Biology	14	6	15	14
Bookkeeping	4	2	2	2
Chemistry	0	1	0	0
Civics	1	1	4	3
English	5	5	5	4
French	15	8	19	16
Geometry	7	4	8	8
German	8	7	7	6
Hebrew	0	1	0	0
Latin	6	4	6	4
Spanish	4	4	4	2
Stenography	3	2	2	2
Typing	5	2	3	3
	85	58	83	70

provement of 13.5 per cent in the control group.

SUMMARY

Our concern with the failing student is a deep one. The tremendous cost of failure in education is not alone monetary. The personality aspect of failure, the loss to citizenship in terms of morale, self-confidence, attitude towards life are incalculable. The school failure may be likened to the depression-sick adult who, weary and discouraged after successive assaults upon an unconquerable stronghold, the economic situation, is ready to accept subversive doctrines, criminal ways of life and who, as our psychiatrists have shown, often develops a neurotic personality. So our failure student becomes a truant, becomes the problem boy, becomes the predelinquent. Psychologically, subject to a stimulus to which his organism cannot react in a socially acceptable way, he escapes into asocial and antisocial behavior of various well-defined types.

That there is ample reason for our work and experiment with the failing student cannot be doubted. It is to be hoped that an analysis of the failing student will lead to an understanding of the fundamental causes of failure. In so far as our particular experiment is concerned, we see it as more im-

portant to question and establish a basic philosophy concerning failure, and to discuss and establish basic techniques for its treatment, than to dwell importantly upon whatever little successes and failures we may have encountered. The important questions concerning us, therefore, are: What have been our shortcomings? What are the few techniques we have established? What recommendations have we to make?

What have been our shortcomings? From the point of view of validity of results we feel that we should have worked with a larger number of students. Factors which are discounted by numbers frequently distort results in a small group. Also we fell short in that attendance at the group, necessarily not compulsory, was not sufficiently good to give the pupil teachers full opportunity for their work. While the attendance of some thirty-five to forty members of the group was fairly constant, we did not succeed sufficiently with the attendance of some eight to ten others. It is further felt that an administrative personnel was not adequately provided for. Thus, the Latin, French, and geometry groups had no teacher-leader at any time. Again, it is recognized that students in the experiment group were contacted neither soon enough nor often enough by the counselor. This was a natural condition arising out of the press of other work in the guidance office and a concomitant of the more or less unofficial status of the experiment.

What techniques have we established? We feel that in the main we have established the following five techniques:

1. Treatment of the failing students group as a club activity on an extra-curricular basis
2. The administration of definite psychological tests, the interest blank, and the home-study questionnaire
3. The break-up of the group into various subject units
4. The use of pupil teacher and teachers-in-training as the leaders of the groups

5. The use of the regular guidance office facilities, which embraces information gathered by the guidance department, the regular guidance interview, and follow-up of problems presented

What are our recommendations? The attention of high-school administrators generally has been focused on those of their students who have manifested symptoms of overt or antisocial behavior, or who have in one way or another failed to adjust to the school situation. Failure is predominantly a type of school maladjustment fully as potent and meaningful as is more obvious overt behavior, of which failure is very frequently a first stage. It is in our effort to find the underlying causes of this type of school maladjustment that we undertook this study. A most detailed analysis of our data would seem to indicate, what has been well proved in other and more ambitious work, that certain types of students will always be failures in certain types of courses. We have reference, of course, to the low I.Q. students, not a single one of whom, despite all help, passes more than two out of four major subjects.

Despite the prognostic value of intelligence tests, the fact remains that so long as students must be admitted to a general school without reference to intelligence quotients and discretion as to course left to ambitious parents who are blind to their children's limitations, some method of proving to the parent the child's innate lack of academic aptitude less expensive than two or three years of time and effort wasted, with all its concomitants, will have to be inaugurated. For such a method our experiment would seem to point the way. Moreover, such a method virtually pivots upon "try-out," the oldest and still most reliable method of judging possible success or failure that we possess. If, hypothetically, all failing students in entering classes were to be enrolled in "extra-help" groups, properly informed of the purposes of the group, and given every opportunity and help in developing

their own abilities and powers; if, moreover, the parents of such students, particularly the low I.Q. students, were informed of the work of the school, it would seem that the school should be able to "sell" to the parent and the child at an early stage (in the event that the child despite all these helps failed) the unreasonableness of continued effort in a course which could at best repay only with failure and dissatisfaction.

In so far as definite recommendations for the conduct of work along these lines is concerned, should it be found desirable to do so, we have the following recommendations to make. Since there would be no necessity for setting up a control group, it is recommended that all students failing in the first third be formed into an extra-help group.

It is further recommended that the organization of, and work with, such extra-help groups be started immediately with the promulgation of first third marks. It is recommended that administrative personnel, be it composed of either pupil teacher or teachers-in-training or pupil teachers, be organized at the beginning of the term to ensure its availability; that there be an adequate personnel; that they be ready to assume their work immediately on the organization of the of the group. It is recommended that if the work be carried on, provision be made for the counselor to contact students sooner and more frequently. Finally, in the belief that most student problems will be found here, it is strongly recommended that this work be carried on.

From Our Correspondents

THE FOLLOWING LETTER, inspired by Miss Marion Campbell's article, "The Citizenship Training Room," which appeared in the October number of THE CLEARING HOUSE, seems to the editors to be worthy of publication. We hope that other readers will send us their views about articles which attract their interest in issues of THE CLEARING HOUSE.

Dear Miss Campbell:

I am certain that all who are interested in problems of education welcomed your school's experiment in dealing with the problem child. "The training (of children) to help them reinstate themselves in the social order" is most certainly the responsibility of modern educational systems.

Your analysis of the experiment ("The Citizenship-Training Room," Marion Campbell, THE CLEARING HOUSE, October 1934) has raised certain problems in my mind. It seems to me that there are several unfortunate features of your plan which would seriously counteract its ultimate value. Fundamentally, your plan is based upon the principle of segregation of all problem children. Though the period of segregation is of short duration, I feel that the very presence of this principle must have disastrous effects. You attempt to convince the child of his social responsibility by deliberately "marking" him as one who is unsocial and by proceeding to remove him from normal society. Per-

sonality is an extremely delicate thing, and the mere declaring to a child: "You are unsocial," and placing him in a class with *only* problem, unsocial children, may destroy the carefully balanced equilibrium of his character. This feature of your plan is fraught with dangerous possibilities.

A further serious objection presents itself. Is it not unwise to group together all problem children, regardless of the cause of their social deficiency? Is it fair to a bright child, whose unfortunate home environment makes him a problem in school, that he shall be grouped in the same class and category as a child whose "problem" character arises from mental or physical deficiency? And what of the brilliant child, who is a problem because he is so out-of-place in a class with average children? Is he to be placed in the same special class with children who may be delinquents? This is a very serious matter. It is true that you give the children individual consideration. But this treatment *follows* their segregation. Does not your plan fail to meet this problem?

Obviously, your proposal is not without distinct advantages. Your recognition, both of the need for dealing with this question and for giving problem children individual attention, is an important step. Undoubtedly, budgetary and such limitations render complete individualization of treatment impossible. But are not the several objections here raised significant enough to warrant serious consideration?

Sincerely yours,

SANFORD SOLENDER

Nation-Wide Study of Standards for Secondary Education

E. D. Grizzell

EDITOR'S NOTE: *Dr. Grizzell gives us a brief summary of the work outlined by the "study." The standards of high schools are certain to undergo many changes in the next decade. Wise leadership was never more essential.*
F. E. L.

A CONFERENCE of representatives of regional associations of secondary schools and higher institutions was held in the United States Office of Education, August 18, 19, 1933. A Committee of Twenty-one consisting of representatives of the six regional associations was constituted. A general plan for a study of standards and procedures for accrediting secondary schools was formulated and approved by the several associations. An executive committee was appointed and charged with the responsibility of working out the details of the proposed study and of acting in an administrative capacity in the promotion of the study. A meeting of the executive committee was held in Cincinnati on November 4, 5, at which a detailed plan was formulated for presentation to the several associations for approval and to some foundation for financial support.

The proposals of the Committee of Twenty-one are as follows:

1. That the regional associations of colleges and secondary schools shall enter into a coöperative study of standards and procedures for evaluating secondary schools.

2. That present standards and procedures of the various regional associations be continued in effect until new and/or revised standards and procedures are formulated and adopted by these associations.

3. That the new standards be derived by:

- a) Testing all old standards and retaining such part or parts of them as prove valid and satisfactory

b) Evolving new standards through research

4. That procedures for evaluating secondary schools on the basis of all standards shall be developed through careful experimentation.

5. That on the basis of the new and revised standards and procedures for evaluation of secondary schools, a program of stimulation for further growth shall be initiated and developed.

6. That for the purpose of carrying forward this program, the greatest possible use should be made of the existing machinery of regional associations.

7. That this proposed program be presented to all the regional associations of colleges and secondary schools with a view to securing their coöperation and support.

8. That a careful statement of the proposed study be prepared and presented to some foundation in order to secure adequate funds with which to carry on the program.

9. That, since uniform standards are not likely to meet the needs, all standards must be adapted by the different associations to the conditions of the various regions.

10. That there shall be established at this time two committees with the following membership from regional associations.

Association	Representation on	
	General Committee	Executive Committee
New England	3	1
Middle States	5	2
Southern	5	2
North Central	5	2
Northwest	2	1
Western	1	1
	21	9

These two committees may invite representatives of other organizations to sit with them as consulting members. The representatives on the general committee shall be named by the respective associations. The members of the executive committee shall be named by the general committee.

Officers of the two committees were chosen as follows: chairman of general committee, George E. Carrothers, University of Michigan; chairman of executive committee, E. D. Grizzell, University of Pennsylvania; secretary of both committees, Carl A. Jensen, specialist in secondary education, United States Office of Education. Commissioner George F. Zook, E. J. Ashbaugh, Miami University, chairman of National Committee on Research in Secondary Education, and D. H. Gardner, dean, University

of Akron, were invited to associate membership on both committees.

The detailed plan of the study has been approved by associations involving 4600 accredited secondary schools in 48 States, Alaska, District of Columbia, and the Panama Canal Zone. It is an opportune time for such a study, considering that the results of the National Survey of Secondary Education, the North Central Study of Standards for Higher Education, the Pennsylvania Study of Relations of Secondary and Higher Education, and other important researches are now available. What is needed is an organized effort to utilize the findings of these researches. The regional associations appear to be the logical machinery for accomplishing this important service.

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Eolus—Or It Is an Ill Wind

W. P. P.

EDITOR'S NOTE: *I honestly don't know who W. P. P. is, but he is cynical in the AMERICAN MERCURY way, and I believe that THE CLEARING HOUSE readers will be entertained by his article. Anyway, here it is.*

F. E. L.

A WINDSTORM PAID OUR town a visit. This in itself is nothing unusual or of any educational significance; windstorms often visit towns, but their results are not always as significant as this one. After this particular windstorm two small boys walked into the office of a professor at the college. One of them was the son of the professor. "Where can we get a crosscut saw?" (Aside) It was plain to be seen that education had been at work. No doubt the children had done a complete unit on saws, present status, history, and suggestions for improvement and they had arrived at a *felt need*. What a thrill, what shivers must have chased one another up and down those tiny spines! What dear ladies must have been moved to tears (and the principal's office to report progress)! Here were two children wanting a crosscut saw. What originality they showed in finding one! Almost beyond belief the boy came to his dad (his mother wasn't there). He got the saw.

But what has this to do with windstorms visiting towns? Be not impatient, we are coming to that. How Eolus must have laughed or growled (you choose) as he romped through our town! What a chuckle of delight he must have let out when he ran afoul of a big silver maple and laid it low. But, satisfied with demonstrating his power, Eolus continued on his way, leaving his mischief for the city street-cleaning department to clean up. In due time, they dragged the fallen monarch to the city dump. Such an end for the work of a god! Such an end for a monarch of the city streets!

But this work was not to be in vain. This

monarch was not to lie long in an unmarked grave. School was in session. Summer school, hot and long hours in classrooms were being reeled off every day. Now came the two boys, the remainder of the class of eight, twelve student teachers, thirty observers, two student supervisors, one supervising teacher (never say critic), and a class in progressive education. Such activity on the city dump had not been seen since Mayor Spivens lost his false teeth while riding on a garbage wagon during a political campaign.

Now for a look at the fallen monarch. It was a live green maple tree, the leaves of which had not yet wilted. The bole below the forks had about six feet of rather twisted possibilities for a log. The boys began to cut. Let us draw the curtain here, as the boys were no match for this green maple log. After students had worn blisters on their hands in *becoming a part of the situation*, they sent for a couple of janitors and a truck.

In due time, the log arrived at the side of the school house. It was six feet long, two and one-half feet through at the base; though slightly twisted, just such a log as an Adenoid Indian would have chosen for a canoe. It might be well to state that the Adenoid Indians have long been an extinct race. It is said that they were the discoverers of Niagara Falls. All of them were killed by riding over the falls in canoes, always trying to find the place where the water came back up so it could fall over again. What a sacrifice for the cause of science!

Since Eolus had his little spell and since the visit to the professor's office, much water has gone over the mill in the school. The unit on saws is history; the slight interest in garbage disposal aroused by a visit to the city dump did not develop into a real life activity. The teachers did not care for the laboratory work and the children did not like

the homework, hence it could not be a wholehearted, purposeful activity; so it was dropped. But with much bolstering by the teachers, the work on Indians continued. Finally the great moment arrives in the classroom. A hush steals over the innocent, expectant faces of the children. The teacher, a lady of some thirty summers and forty-five winters, stands in majestic silence. "Children," the silence becomes thicker and deeper, "we are going to live together and do some of the handwork of the Adenoid Indians." "Who would like to make the canoe?" The hands of all the boys go up like the arm on a railroad target, except one boy whose hair hangs in long curls and whose graceful flowing bow tie bedecks a neck unknissed by the sun.

"Boys, you may make the canoe."

"How did the Adenoid Indians make canoes?"

"They made them out of logs." (Chorus)

"How did they do it?"

"They burned them out with fire."

"Do you boys think you could make a canoe as well as the Adenoid Indians did?"

The ayes have it and the boys troop forth to dirt, grime, quarreling, happiness, and possibly learning. He of the flowing tie follows haltingly to a life which former experiences have taught him will be hardly pleasant.

A few weeks later. At the school building where this activity was taking place, the smell of burning wood filled the air. A wholehearted, purposeful activity going in full blast. Some children were wiping smoke from their eyes, others were busy scraping out the charred wood on the log from the last fire. Rocks and clam shells were being used for this purpose, just as the Adenoids would have done it. A channel twelve inches wide and ten inches deep had been burned in this maple after weeks of heartbreaking toil. The work was harder because of following the traditions of the Adenoids. The Adenoids always chose maple because it was harder to work with and did not float as well as other woods. To become a first-class war-

rior in the Adenoids a young brave had to choose and make his canoe from a *green maple log*. That marked him as an Adenoid at once. Among this group of imitation Adenoids there must have been a potential chief, because at some time during the building of the canoe some one had decided that scraping the charred wood could be facilitated by scraping it straight out the back end. They had scraped out the end, leaving the boat without a bow end, amidships as it were, a typical Adenoid trick. But so much for an error of so small moment. Three boards from an orange crate were tacked over this void and the canoe had a bow. A few strokes with the ax (by the janitor) and the boat had a prow. Two heavy spikes, a piece of baling wire, and half of a cement block, and the canoe was safely moored in the schoolyard, a mile from water.

In the meantime, Ceres had gone on her annual hunt for Proserpine. The earth was all but dried up. Lakes became mere damp places. For this reason, no children were drowned in trying to test out the results of their wholehearted, purposeful activity.

CONCLUSIONS

All papers on education must have conclusions. Try to get away with a term paper without conclusions. You might as well be without footnotes as to be so foolish as to omit conclusions.

1. The Adenoid Indians were not the only ones who built canoes of green maple logs.
2. It is little use to have a child's adenoids removed if the god of the wind is going to romp through towns blowing down trees.
3. If the California Fruit Growers Exchange ever gives up wooden orange crates, modern elementary education will crash.
4. The kids cannot help it.
5. What's one summer's work to a child?
6. The Adenoid Indians never found out where the water came back up over the falls.
7. It was not the going over the falls that stopped their experiment always, it was the condition at the bottom.

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Mental Hygiene in the Junior High School¹

Frederick L. Patry

EDITOR'S NOTE: *Frederick L. Patry, M.D., is psychiatrist in the New York State Department of Education. I wish that all teachers could realize with him that "a sense of achievement, self-mastery, and a sense of power become vitalized elements in the pupils' personality growth."*

F. E. L.

NEARLY twenty years ago, Professor E. L. Thorndike made the following statement to a group of students: "If any of you men have the skill and inclination to stand as interpreters between the research worker in education and the school, *do that*; for research is now far outrunning its application to practice."

In a similar vein, M. P. Follet is credited with the following seasoned remark: "It is not a knowledge of his specialty which makes an expert of service to society, but his insight into the relation of his specialty to the whole."

Without presuming the rôle of an educational prophet or dictator, but rather as an integrator, I beg leave to swing into the focus of your attention a few impressions gleaned from personal contact with junior high schools and the literature pertaining thereto, especially as it touches upon mental-hygiene factors.

Let us first ask the question: What is mental hygiene?

It will be helpful if we take the general point of view that mental hygiene has to do with helping us, individually and collectively, in the art of living happily and well. It is a measure of one's ability to adjust satisfactorily to life; successfully meet its responsibilities; and effectively seize its op-

portunities encountered in the business of living. Anything which does or may promote the health, happiness, efficiency, and social adaptation of the individual or group is a focus of concern to the mental hygienist. Likewise, anything which cuts in upon these objectives is also an obligation to the mental health worker, not only from the treatment side (elimination, modification, or acceptance of disturbing factors), but especially from the point of view of prevention, and more particularly from the standpoint of enrichment of life's values, appreciations, and functions for all persons. Every one possesses potentialities for self- and group-improvement and welfare, no matter where he may be on the curve of distribution. Positive mental health teaching and living are its chief purposes.

In the light of the above perspective in the meaning, functioning, and goals of mental hygiene, let us briefly cull from the historical lap of the junior high school certain developments which basically revolve about the promotion of pupil happiness.

To my mind, the two chief contributions to date of the junior high school in actualizing the above objectives have been (1) the recognition and provision for individual differences, and (2) placing emphasis on the effective socialization and marketability of all the children of this age level who may profit by such training and experience. There are many other notable mental-hygiene contributions besides the two singled out, but they are more or less inherent in these two developments.

To talk about individual differences in this stage of educational thought and practice is almost too trite to mention. But it remained for this erstwhile infant prodigy in educa-

¹Address to New York State Teachers Association, Junior High School Section, Rochester, N.Y., November 3, 1933.

tional armamentarium to awaken an interest in and provide for varying inherent and acquired capabilities, interests, and aptitudes in the age group 12 to 15. Such children were formerly to a considerable extent cluttering the educational deck, largely marking time, causing no end of problems, and without adding to their mental or social stature.

Welling up from this fountain head of individual differences—intellectual, emotional, biological, and temperamental—there began to take form new methods and goals which fed from a new philosophy in keeping with serving the young adolescent. All of you know what has been done. I shall therefore merely scratch the surface of your bump of recollection in order to resensitize you to the really big and splendid job you have and are accomplishing.

1. Reformulation and re-creation of the curriculum to meet individual capacities, bents, desires, and interests. This led to a better articulation with the elementary and secondary schools, assisting in the clearance of their decks, as well as in furnishing better trained material for the senior high school, commercial, vocational, and technical schools. The educational shoe took on new plasticity and new facilities, new organization, new and better trained teacher personnel to capitalize latent constructive pupil potentialities.

2. Social and personal growth took on new life since chief interest became centered about pupil educational, vocational, social, and economic probable goals, rather than in subject-matter acquisition, examination hurdles, credits, and diplomas. The chief concern became "How may we shape or create educational facilities to give original nature and acquired habits, interests, and skills the best chance to unfold and organize to the optimum?" This obligated teachers to know better their pupils if they were to evaluate ever-changing, ever-growing individual differences. It led to guidance, counseling, revelation, interpretation, and motivation factors which must be respected in arming

the youth for successful life functioning on his own level of abilities. Sympathetic and intelligent personal, social, educational, pre- and vocational guidance stands out as a beacon light in respecting mental-hygiene principles, particularly since it led to exploratory and experimentation courses which put to a test, under wise supervision, the materials pupils had to offer. Thus, out of performance, in learning and tasting by doing, there bore in upon the consciousness of pupil and teacher individual assets and limitations, their acceptance, and the will to bring about their optimal balance. Each pupil came to face the problem, What am I most good for? What gives me the greatest satisfaction? Where shall I tentatively choose training to fit myself for effective citizenship service? These questions usually became satisfactorily answered by virtue of the cultivation of pupil choice and decision nourished by individual and group guidance and counseling, the provision of electives, exploratory, try-out, and variable courses. Self-direction and volitional forces became exercised in promoting profitable self-activities. Thus, without unnecessary failure and waste of time, each pupil came to find himself—assets as well as liabilities, and to see himself on a scale of social values cemented about guiding life purposes and a life philosophy. The gap between school and further education, business, industry, social, and community functioning became bridged.

3. The inculcation of sound *habit training* in fundamental knowledges, special skills, studies, recreations, health, citizenship, attitudes and practices, duties and responsibilities are important mental-hygiene contributions, especially when accompanied with the desirable emotional elements of joy, enthusiasm, and social approval.

4. Some of the most justifiable reasons for the existence of the junior high school are the diminution and elimination of pupil failure, retardation, repetition, nonattendance, behavior and personality difficulties, and antisocial activities. Pupils became attracted

to school because they could show off to advantage on their own level of ability. A sense of achievement, self-mastery, and sense of power become vitalized elements in his personality growth. His appetite became whetted because new chords were struck, awakening elements of originality, initiative, desire to win social recognition and approval, because he could *do* something reasonably well and with a feeling of satisfaction.

4. Character building through the wise utilization of intra- and extraclass activities, clubs, pupil self-government, plans under teacher guidance from the side lines, dramatics and sports education, outlets which gave opportunities for drawing out talents in leadership, and at the same time the necessity and joy of wise followership. Thus, adolescent social strivings became wholesomely nourished; emancipation from parental and teacher dominance and dependence gradually gave way to personal and social self-direction. The growing sense of freedom was curbed by awakening in the pupil a desire and need of espousing social responsibility and obligations. This desirable trend was given ballast by shifting the focus of interest from the 3 r's to the social studies which revealed the world of man, how he thinks, feels, and acts in relation to his fellows, human organization and institutions, and how he may take an active intelligent part in contributing to the social weal by obligating himself to learn and evaluate the underlying factors entering into social, economic, and political trends and problems—local, national, and world-wide in scope. This does not imply that pupils should be obligated to formulate solutions of such tremendously complex developments. Living effectively in the here and now by translating knowledges, interests, skills, and appreciations into the capitalization of present-day problems and opportunities should be our chief concern.

5. Finally the junior high school, more than any other level of the educational struc-

ture, has won for itself a keen appreciation and interest of the parent, employer, and general public because budding adolescents are given opportunities to experience happiness which always accompanies the habit of success. The public evaluates a school's services and justifies its existence by the character of its products. The junior high school has and will continue to do a bigger and better job and a different job coincident with the ever-changing conditions of life. The positive creations of this sturdy youth, now some twenty-four years old in educational service, are reflected in a heightened community enlightenment in areas surrounding these schools. There is no better way to win support for progressive public education than to win the good will of the parent, taxpayer, and the general public.

After glancing at the above monumental record of accomplishments, it may seem out of order to raise the topic, "What every teacher can do" in promoting mental hygiene in the junior high school. Has she not done enough? What next steps may be considered since teachers fundamentally are or should be experimental and melioristically minded? May I briefly enumerate two or three desirable teacher needs.

Just as important as knowing what and how to teach is that of knowing one's own personality. The teacher is the center of mental-health gravity in the classroom, since her example in overt or implicit or implied functioning is mirrored and reflected by pupils. Every child, largely unwittingly, weaves into his own personality fibre the personality attributes and traits of those in positions of authority, power, love, and respect. It is tremendously important then that the teacher present on all occasions the optimum example in functioning, especially her ability to constructively charge and control the emotional atmosphere of the classroom. Proper rapport between teacher and pupil is essential for the facilitation of the learning process.

Unless the teacher has a thorough under-

standing of her own personality make-up and growth, her own liabilities as well as assets, her own conflicts, anxieties, worries, frustrations, ambitions, cravings, and wishes and how she balances them, there is very likely to arise personality twists, expressing themselves in one's altered deportment, attitude, expression, and ability to see the pupil as well as herself objectively. As a result the teacher may express her emotional maladjustment or lack of harmonious mental and emotional functioning both within herself and in relation to one's environment and others in an eruption of bodily protests or symptoms, or in negative methods such as in fault finding, supercilious attitudes, oversensitiveness to constructive criticism, lack of sympathy, ridicule, or sarcasm. Such expressions of personality malfunctionings become projected onto innocent pupils who are undeserving of such unnecessary strain. A thorough-going personality study, such as the one published by the University of the State of New York Press² may do much to give the teacher insight into her own performance, its interpretation, and how improvement may be brought about.

Secondly, the teacher must know pupils as genetic-dynamic "experiments of nature" whose behavior should be interpreted as efforts in gaining a sense of satisfaction in adaptation to life situations. To assist her in the interpretation and reconstruction of pupil problems in personality and behavior adjustments, and also from the point of view of assisting every pupil to experience greater happiness, serviceable tools and techniques are desirable in fortifying her common sense. The teacher may greatly profit by the methods of the psychiatrist and visiting teacher in the utilization of social casework methods. The University of the State of New York Press publishes a pamphlet³ in

such a project which will be helpful to all teachers. May I suggest "a case study a month" plan whereby at least one pupil each month may be selected for special study either because of some maladjustment or because the child may not be measuring up to his abilities and opportunities. You will surprise yourself as to the joy and zest in working closer to pupil personality factors and the relation of your own personality functionings to those of the pupil.

A third device in assisting teachers to understand and promote pupil welfare was recently published⁴ in order to sensitize teachers to the multiplicity of pupil asset and liability factors (modifiable and relatively unmodifiable) which should be known if we are to assist pupils in optimally balancing, organizing, and purposefully shaping personality components.

Finally, we need mass mental-hygiene projects to capitalize social or group mental-health functioning. A device which augurs well to fill such a need in the high-school level has recently been published by a non-profit-making organization.⁵ This timely publication will be exceedingly helpful in promoting social maturity which is the core of the junior-high-school philosophy, but also citizenship and character-building values developed out of the soil of well-organized club activities and the study of problems vital to young people. The effectiveness of such a plan is enhanced because of its nation-wide scope.

Before concluding, may I categorically mention certain other mental-hygiene opportunities and practices, most of which you recognize, but which seem to me worthy of emphasis at this time:

1. The need of home visitation by the classroom teacher of each of her pupils. You cannot know the whole child unless you know his parents, home, and neighborhood

² Frederick L. Patry, *Outlines of Personality Study for Teachers and Teachers in Training*, University of the State of New York Press, Albany, 1932.

³ Frederick L. Patry, *Methodology in the Formulation of Mental Hygiene Case Studies*, University of the State of New York Press, Albany, 1933.

⁴ Frederick L. Patry, "A Psychological Balance Chart," *Educational Method*, 12:400-443, April 1933.

⁵ The Junior Service League: *A School Club for Junior and Senior High Schools* (New York: National Child Welfare Association, 1933.)

conditions. Educating the whole child obligates one to know the facts of his twenty-four-hour methods, influences, circumstances of living, and results in each case.

2. Mental-hygiene points of view, principles, and practices must be integrated in every intra- and extraclass activity and with each of the cardinal objectives of secondary education. Mental health cannot be acquired like a coat of paint. It can only arise out of one's daily thinking, feeling, attitudes, appreciations, and actions each minute of the day.

3. Respect the thinking or discriminatory powers but realize that most of us do not live by thinking things through or straight, but by the proper control and utilization of instinctive-emotional drives. These are the mainsprings of human conduct. Thinking largely is their abject servant. Education and intellectualization of the emotions should be at least as equally important as the training of one's intellect. Proper feeling-attitudes must precede desirable performance.

4. Recognize the fact that every child is essentially a creator. That he in the main learns not by acquisition, repetition, and drill, important as they may be at times, but in having opportunities to solve novel challenging situations, in rubbing elbows with tasks with a modicum of fear, insecurity, conflict, danger, and thrill in them; in discovering for himself how to master new problems through the utilization of originality, discovery, and curiosity dynamic drives. But the secret of success in drawing out his creative propensities lies in the important factor of confronting the child with only those situations in which reasonable success, a feeling of satisfaction, and a sense of power through achievement may be gained by putting forth reasonable effort and will power.

5. Study each child from the point of view of specific abilities and limitations rather than in terms of X, Y, Z, or accelerate, average, and slow-going groupings or from

the standpoint of averages or norms, although such groupings may play an important rôle. Each child has many "ages," as many as his personality components—intellectual, emotional, characterological, physiological, anatomical, educational, social, moral, as well as the chronological life age. We must analyze him in terms of specific traits, abilities, character and personality potentialities as well as actualities which tests measure, rather than in terms of glittering generalities and in pigeon-hole classifications. These latter practices may lubricate the educational machine, but not pupil welfare. Intellectual, emotional, and character potentialities and abilities, although integrated and inseparable, are serrated and specific for certain subject matter and for certain situations. They are not unit characters or homogeneously fixed entities. For example, initiative, leadership, and independence should have specific connotations and settings rather than thought of in general terms.

6. In this scientific era let us furnish the child with scientific methods and approaches. Teach him the value of applying scientific common sense, such as Adolf Meyer's psychobiological formula, when faced with or in analyzing a problem; viz, What are the facts? How do they group themselves? Under what conditions do they arise? With what results? What are the modifiable and relatively unmodifiable factors? How may we put to a test and control the experiment? Likewise, when confronting pupils with controversial, economic, social, and political topics, let us always keep in mind at least two or more sides of the problem and search out the *pros* and *cons* of the obtainable facts which should be thoughtfully, but objectively, tabulated and evaluated. Do not shy at new terms and expressions to convey new meanings, new implications, new relationships, and new developments. Symbolization by the use of an ever-growing vocabulary is essential in cultivating intellectual potentialities.

7. Distinguish between pupil wants and

pupil needs. The emancipation process and the cultivation of freedom of expression need not imply that we deed over to effervescent youth the school buildings and curricula. There are fundamental knowledges, attitudes, habits, and appreciations he must know and practice if he is to be an asset to our democracy. Freedom and ventilation of wishes does not imply chaos; it means responsible individualism to social welfare and emotional self- and group-control.

8. The socializing value of encouraging more mature and gifted pupils in assisting those who may be retarded in curricular acquisition or in socialization for one or several reasons seems to possess rich mental-hygiene values. Among others, such a practice engenders a feeling-attitude and practice of brotherly love, sympathy, and helpfulness so sorely needed in these times of stress and strain. The ability and willingness to get along well with one another through active coöperation is one of the most helpful things a school may do for children.

9. Finally, let us create opportunities to draw out pupils in telling of their problems, desires, wishes, cravings, longings, fancies, ambitions, conflicts, thwartings, and frustrations. Once the teacher inspires pupil con-

fidence, respect, and admiration, the child will well up in expressing his feelings and thoughts, conflicts, thwartings, joys, and expectations. Here is a golden opportunity to lift his vision, broaden his perspective, and assist him in keeping ambition in close contact with ability—the things he can do well and with a reasonable amount of satisfaction. Likewise, balancing and protecting material may be indirectly swung in to assist the child in balancing internal and environment factors of disharmony. Doubts and anxieties may be assuaged by bringing new points of view and new facts to pupil awareness. Such a desideratum takes time to be sure, but time well spent.

There is no end of mental-hygiene suggestions which might be discussed in connection with the junior high school. Each of us may make new and extended contributions to pupil happiness if we will but sensitize ourselves to the plurality of factors which enter into mental health and at the same time get into the habit of seizing every opportunity to promote pupil and teacher health, happiness, efficiency, and social adaptation, the tetrad of pillars of mental hygiene.

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School Law Review

Daniel R. Hodgdon

LIABILITY FOR INJURY TO PUPIL; BLEACHER SEAT RAIL DEFECTIVE

Under a statute relieving a board of education from liability for injury to a high-school pupil if such injury occurred on any athletic apparatus or appliance or manual-training equipment, the question arose as to whether bleacher seats fall within the term athletic apparatus so as to relieve the board from liability of injury to a pupil who had paid an annual admission to the athletic field as required by a rule of the school for general activities. The pupil held a ticket that admitted him to all games free of charge. He attended a football game of his school. While he was on one of the bleacher seats, a guard rail on the back of the seat broke and gave way; as a result he fell many feet to the ground below and sustained injuries. The court held that the bleacher seats could not be considered athletic apparatus and, therefore, the board was liable for the injuries to the pupil as the exemption statute would not apply. (*Juntila v. Everett School District* 35 P. (2d) 78, August 28, 1934.)

POWER OF BOARD OF EDUCATION TO DISMISS TEACHER

A board of education acting under a tenure law has no power to dismiss a teacher except for cause. Where a teacher sues a board for illegal dismissal and alleges that the board dismissed her without any reasonable or just cause, such allegation was sufficient and there was no need to allege that the board of education abused its discretion, or acted in bad faith, or was guilty of fraud, corruption, or oppression, when exercising its power to dismiss a teacher for incompetency or in the interest of the school. The court said, "We believe that a proper interpretation of the powers of boards of education gives them the power of removal and dismissal of teachers for cause and was not intended to bestow upon them power arbitrarily or without cause to dismiss teachers from their employment." This is another example of the broad manner in which courts apply the law. Cases of dismissal or removal of teachers are probably more frequent now than in the past decade. Courts tolerate no hair-splitting analysis of the law, but apply it within the broad sense intended by the legislature. The difference between the States where the teacher has the right

to appeal to the court and in many of the cases where the case is appealed to the commissioner of education or State board of education is that the court usually appears to take a fairer view of the intent of the law and completely disposes of all legal points raised while cases before a quasi judicial person or board like a commissioner of education or State board are decided on narrow interpretation or without regard of the entire legal points raised. This deprives the teacher or board of a fair hearing or decision in the matter, if no appeal is provided. Where appeal is provided the number of cases reversed by the courts is evidence of the inefficiency of the quasi judicial determinations and its unfairness to the teaching profession. (191 N.E. 279.)

NOTICE OF BOARD MEETING

The general rule requires that for all special meetings of a board of education due notices must be sent to each member of the board in accordance with the manner specified by law. When such notice has not been sent, business transacted by the board is illegal as all members of the board must have an opportunity to act upon any matters to be presented to the board. Where, however, the notice of the special board meeting is invalid, but all members of the board of education are present and take part in the meeting, the acts of the majority are binding upon the board and the school district in all matters on which the board has power to act. Two rules apply: (1) If all members of a school board are present and take part in the meeting, irregularity in giving notice of the meeting is waived (*State v. Tucker*, 39 N.D. 106, 166 N.E. 820); or (2) if no objection to want of notice is made, notice is waived (*Schafer v. School District*, 116 Mich. 206, 74 N.W. 465). This question arose where notice was not given as required by law for a special meeting of the board to employ a teacher. All members were present and a majority voted for the teacher. One member neither assented or dissented to the hiring. He declined to sign the contract but the court held that there was a valid hiring and contract of employment of the teacher. (*Hlavka v. Common School District No. 83 et al*, 255 N.W. 820 (Minn.), decided June 22, 1934.)

Book Reviews

Source Book in the Philosophy of Education, by W. H. KILPATRICK. Revised edition. New York: The Macmillan Company, 1934, 535 pages, \$2.25.

The many thousands of instructors and students who have made use of Dr. Kilpatrick's syllabus and source book in the philosophy of education during the last ten or more years welcome the present revision of the source book. It differs from the original chiefly in the inclusion of new materials which have recently become available. So rich is current literature in explanations of and questioning about social developments, including, of course, education, that barely one third of the desirable quotations accumulated could find place even in this enlarged edition. Like its predecessor, this book is invaluable for students who desire to get in one volume many very significant brief statements by competent thinkers, many of whom disagree with each other and with Dr. Kilpatrick.

P. W. L. C.

Administering the County School System, by RICHARD E. JAGGERS. New York: American Book Company, 1934, 232 pages.

Well-organized elementary treatment of county-school organization, finance, and business administration. The volume proposes real improvements over current practice, but would have been more effective had practice in more States been drawn upon for illustrative purposes.

F. C. BORGESON

Supervisory Guidance of Teachers in Secondary Schools, by ELLSWORTH COLLINGS. New York: The Macmillan Company, 1934, x + 613 pages, \$2.50.

"Since the school is an institution established by society to further the growth of boys and girls, it seems logical that its most consistent function would be to provide guidance of the purposeful activities of pupils, for in no other way is it possible for them to grow." The author proposes to suggest in this book "how schoolwork can best be expressed in terms of the guidance of the purposeful activities of the pupils." The introduction of such a program of education, the author believes, necessitates a revision of the present program along several vital lines. Supervision is interpreted as "supervisory guidance of teachers in revising the present program along these lines."

One quarter of the book deals with "supervisory guidance of teachers" in the general aspects of the school program—in "studying how boys and girls grow," in "analyzing the purposeful activities of boys and girls," and so on. The rest of the book deals with "supervisory guidance of teachers" in the use of subject matter.

Professor Collings implies much but says little concerning the philosophy and principles of supervision he assumes for his program. But it is obviously the teacher-training type of supervisor who will be most sympathetic with the purpose of the volume. It is not a discussion of supervisory techniques but of teaching materials and devices. For those who are training teachers (which is not synonymous with supervising teachers) the volume will be a valuable handbook. For teachers on the hunt for new devices, it will warrant careful study.

JOHN CARR DUFF

Building Personality, by A. GORDON MELVIN. New York: The John Day Company, 1934, vii + 303 pages, \$3.00.

Professor Melvin has written a book which is sure to draw fire from many of the psychologists. His description of personality is a significant effort to harmonize the theories of the several hostile camps. Eclecticism is usually another way of being timid and undecided. Melvin's not that kind of eclecticism. He does not stand in awe of the most "scientific" of the psychologists, and his wish is to reconcile not the psychologists but their theories.

Psychology, Melvin points out, is basically a study of human personality. "By personality is meant that unified phenomenon which we attribute to the human being in virtue of his existence. Personality is an entity which is self-directing, which manifests itself by means of the life force suffusing and animating the mechanism."

The author, well known for his contributions to the literature of progressive education, is not academically interested in personality. His thesis leads into important conclusions concerning the nature of learning—"learning which gives meaning to life itself." Education, from this point of view, is the making and remaking of personality. Parents and teachers may find the book valuable for the fresh concept of personality it develops. Psychologists will cheer for the book or find it poison, each according to the color and intensity of his individual bias.

JOHN CARR DUFF

High School English Practice, by MARGARET GILLUM and BLANCHE WELLONS. Book One. New York: The Macmillan Company, 1934, 126 pages, 40 cents.

This is another of the drill books designed to accompany a certain text or to be used alone. The work covered is that of the minimum essentials and is sensibly proportioned. Its arrangement is intended to promote self-help; but I think the authors, crowding their pages with far too much material—keys, hints, illustrations, references to the text, directions—have defeated their purpose and made the book a good illustration of the complexity waiting to trap the unwary.

G. R. CERVENY

Our Changing Social Order, by RUTH W. GAVIAN, A. A. GRAY, and ERNEST R. GROVES. Boston: D. C. Heath and Company, 1934, 577 pages, \$1.80.

This sociology for senior-high-school students is a very significant contribution to the resources on which progressive and alert teachers may draw in order to help their pupils to prepare themselves for well-informed and purposeful participation in public affairs. The book contains twenty-seven chapters, grouped into nine units dealing with the creation and growth of culture, its interaction with human nature, individual adjustments, health, population, crime, national income, and politics. The final unit is well entitled "Toward a Fuller Life for All." The illustrations, the pedagogical devices, the contents of the appendix, and the format of the book are all noteworthy.

P. W. L. C.

Centralizing Tendencies in the Administration of Public Education, by GEORGE D. STRAYER, JR. New York: Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, Columbia University, 1934, \$1.50.

Dr. Strayer's doctoral dissertation follows a pattern that is to be commended. Chapter I sets forth and justifies three criteria by which the author proposes to evaluate the centralizing tendencies of public-school administration in three States, North Carolina, Maryland, and New York. If the reader accepts the criteria, and if the author applies them adequately and consistently, the discussions of the following chapter should be wholly clear. Even if the reader cannot accept the criteria without reservation, the basis of later disagreements is clear.

The reviewer, for example, is unable to accept

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without reservation the second part of Criterion III: The educational program should be considered as a whole, and special phases or types of education should not be supported at the expense of the rest of the program. He reads with critical eye, therefore, to discover what significance the investigator attaches to the words "at the expense of." It is unimportant whether the reader and the writer agree on the judgments made, provided the basis of disagreement is clear.

This study closes with the statement of nine "guiding principles" which should control in State centralization with the safeguarding of local administrative units. These principles should be of positive value in guiding future educational legislation.

P. W. L. C.

Our Economic Society and Its Problems, by H. C. HILL and REXFORD G. TUGWELL. New York: Harcourt, Brace and Company, 1934, 566 pages, \$1.72.

The subtitle of this volume is "A Study of American Levels of Living and How to Improve Them." After tracing the story of economic life in former times, the authors tell of present poverty and comfort in country and city, of the in-

terrelations between living conditions and methods of production, the conduct of business affairs, the redistribution of income, the wise use of income, and international relatives. Finally, the alternatives to our historic laissez-faire are fairly and competently presented.

The book is intended for the twelfth grade of school. It presents material and helps pupils to answer questions that are significant and vital for youths who already are of an age to affect community life positively. The skillful hand of H. C. Hill is evident in its pedagogical arrangement.

P. W. L. C.

American Social Problems, by W. G. BEACH and E. E. WALKER. California: Stanford University Press, 1934, 391 pages.

This volume consists of three major divisions: group life; problems of social change and adjustment; and looking towards the future. Chapter I is preceded by an excellent section of five pages addressed by the authors to the students whose present dilemma they sympathetically understand, faced as they are by a multitude of ills. They challenge youths now and always thereafter to seek to unravel the complicated threads of social problems that beset their world. The book is an effort to help them begin to do so.

P. W. L. C.

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3319 N. 14th St., Milwaukee, Wisconsin.

Education and Emergent Man, by W. C. BAGLEY. New York: Thomas Nelson and Sons, 1934, 238 pages.

Dr. Bagley has presented in this volume an able and consistent critical apology for a conservative program of education. With a perspective involving millions of years, he examines the learning process, knowledge, intellectual discipline, individual differences, pupil groupings, and curriculum reform. Such a perspective, of course, makes the endeavor to speed up the social processes seem puny and insignificant indeed.

To younger men who rather breathlessly seek to make of education a positive instrument for ameliorating man's attitudes and behaviors in their own times, Dr. Bagley's implied counsel is to be calm. Thirty years ago, he seems to say, I too was young; I formulated "laws"; I urged changes; but now I know that it does not matter. It will be all the same a million years from now.

The reviewer though now gray of pate still prefers the Bagley whose books so stimulated him over a quarter century ago to the rather tired though still brilliant and effective Bagley who writes so gloatingly of the failures of man's earnest efforts to be free. One wonders if Bagley appreciates the importance that groping and struggling have had in making man man. One also wonders if Bagley, who is himself an indefatigable worker and thinker, realizes what comfort his conclusions give to those school people who are inert.

P. W. L. C.

Basic Principles in Education, by HENRY C. MORRISON. Boston: Houghton Mifflin Company, 1934, 452 pages.

For thirty years or more, Dr. Morrison has been one of America's constructive educational thinkers and doers. In *Basic Principles in Education* he reviews the developments and sources of education which he defines as "the development in the individual by process of learning as distinguished from physical growth." He reaches the new "high" for Morrison: the integration of personality is the outcome and goal of true education. Such a conclusion has been implicit in his recent writings. Unfortunately, however, it has been hidden beneath the mountainous discourses on mastery and techniques. His present explanations and discussions of personality, the fabric of personality, integration of personality, education as adjustment, and educability. Chapters VII-XI should be read and pondered by all serious students of education.

P. W. L. C.

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